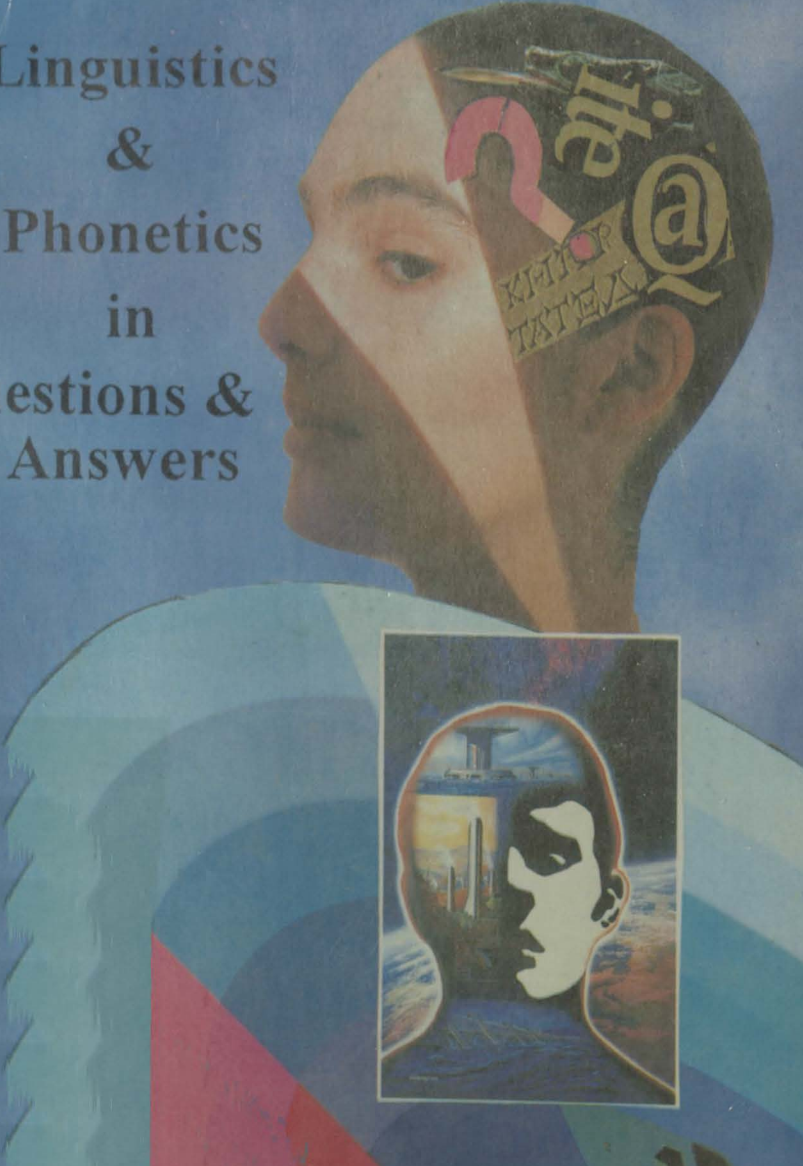
THE STORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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LANGUAGE : ITS NATURE, ORIGIN GROWTH AND FUNCTIONS

1

Q. 1. Give an account of the nature and origin of language.

Ans. Before studying the growth and development of the English language over the past fifteen hundred years, we should get clearly into our minds a few fundamental facts about language in general. To some people it may appear that these facts are quite obvious and that there is no need to study or analyse them in detail. But because language is so natural and familiar to all human beings, the fundamental facts about language are likely to be over-looked or imperfectly understood and hence they have to be studied carefully. We can appreciate fully the significance of the various forces affecting the growth and development of language onl; if we are aware of the essential facts concerning its nature and origin.

To begin with, the nature of language may be analysed. If we were to ask ourselves what language is, the answer would be that it is a means of letting other people know what we have in mind. In other words, language enables us to convey to others what we are thinking or feeling or desiring. But while considering this definition of language we have to admit that language or speech is not the only means of conveying our ideas to others. To a certain extent gestures and signs can also do this. For instance one can nod one's head instead of saying "yes" or shake it from side to side instead of saying "no". Language, in the sense in which we use the term here, is different from signs and gestures as a means of conveying our ideas because it employs sounds, which, for ourselves and our hearers, have meaning. These sounds of speech are produced by the deliberate movements of the vocal organs including the lips, the jaws, the tongue and the vocal chords. This brings us to the definition of speech as the expression of our thoughts and feelings through sounds produced by the activities of the vocal organs. We should remember that the sounds of speech are deliberately and intentionally uttered and are therefore to be distinguished from emotional cries which are mechanically and instinctively uttered under the influence of joy, fear, anger or surprise. Also we have to take into consideration the two aspects of language namely the inner one relating to the meaning we wish to express, and the outer one relating to the expression of that meaning through the sounds of speech. In speaking a language we are making use of certain sets of sounds called the words of the language to serve as outward symbols of the ideas in our minds. As a symbol stands for something else, only those who are familiar with the symbol and the particular way of using it can recognize or understand it. The sounds of speech cannot

be considered as symbols having a general significance for all people in the sense in which a picture of a horse or tree is symbolic of the object in question. Only after we have become familiar with the particular collection of sounds which we call the words of a language and have learnt the meanings attached by the speakers to these, can we understand the language. Hence in learning a language we have to learn a particular set of sounds and groups of sounds and the ideas symbolised by them in the minds of the native speakers of the language. Edward Sapir in his book, "Language, An Introduction to the Study of Speech" has defined language as "a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols." The use of the word "system" in this definition emphasizes the distinction between speech and language. While the word speech refers to the action of an individual or the isolated actions of several individuals, language refers to an organized system of means of communication employed by a group of people who can understand one another. This distinction between speech and language is often associated with De Saussure whose work "Cours de Linguistique generale" was published posthumously in 1916. The distinction had been recognized earlier by Puttenham who in his work "The Arts of English Poesie" (1589) wrote —"After a speech is fully fashioned to the common understanding and accepted by consent of a whole country and nation, it is called a language." It is true that the study of speech can throw valuable light on the study of language by knowledge of the speech of an individual. A very important branch of the study of language namely Linguistic Analysis, deals with the methods by which millions of separate utterances can be reduced to a system which can be regarded as a language. It must be remembered that no two people speaking the same language speak exactly alike and that the term language which is not exactly identical with the speech of any one speaker of the language, "is a kind of unreal abstraction." However, most people cannot appreciate the differences between speech sounds uttered by different speakers of the same language and think they speak exactly alike.

If sounds of speech are regarded as the symbols of our thoughts and ideas, written words can be considered to be the symbols of these sounds. In other words while speech is the symbol of thought, writing is the symbol of speech. That is to say, writing is the symbol of a symbol. When words are first written down, they are written in such a way as to make them serve as exact symbols of the pronunciation at the time. But because of various reasons the pronunciation of the words in a language is likely to change from time to time. The spelling never keeps pace with the changes in pronunciation. Hence spellings even when they have started with being phonetic, later become unphonetic unless they are reformed to keep pace with the pronunciation. The important thing for us to remember in studying a language is that the spoken form is far more important than the written form. We do not pronounce as we write,

but rather try to write as we pronounce.

Another very important feature of language is that it is evolutionary and never static. Change is the rule in pronunciation, grammar, and usage of words, in any language. Though there are certain agencies at work which retard the change and development in the grammar and usage of a language, there are many others that help change the existing form of the language. A person who has lived to a ripe old age, on looking back at the kind of language he had learnt at school and comparing it with the form of the same language which his grand children are learning, can easily understand how much the language has changed and developed during his own life time. Teachers of English in schools and colleges recently have been disconcerted by having to teach as examples of correct English usage, the very sentences which they had given to be corrected by students a few years ago. All this goes to prove that a language, so long as it is spoken, continues to change. It will cease to change only when it has ceased to be spoken or has become a dead language.

Now this capacity to express ourselves in speech is what differentiates human beings from other animal species. It is true that animals also may be said to have their own language as they express fear, anger, joy or the sex impulse through characteristic cries or noises. But none of them has developed a speech as man has done, though according to Prof. Lloyd James, many animals are possessed of all the necessary organs of speech at least in embryo. It is assumed that man alone has developed language because he alone has a developed mind and personality. In other words it can be said that the species which have developed mind and personality have developed language too. But we cannot say which gave impetus to the other—whether the development of mind and personality led to the development of language or whether the development of language led to the development of mind and personality. In all probability the two processes must have been complementary, exerting a mutual influence. We can only assert, along with Prof. G. Elliot Smith that the discovery of speech marked the beginning of man.

Coming to the origin of species we find that four theories have long been holding the field. The first of these is popularly known as the "bow-wow theory". It is based on the assumption that the earliest speech marked the effect of man's imitating some characteristic sound of the creature or object he was referring to. We may take it that when a child speaks of a dog as a "bow-wow" he is imitating the speech habits of his adult ancestors in prehistoric time. It is true that there is a certain onomatopoeic element in all ancient words for snake, wind, water etc. The same thing can be noticed in words of recent coinage like puff, whine, wail, whistle and babble. Though this theory can account for certain number of words in the language it is difficult to carry it to its conclusion. The best we can say about this theory is that it has never been driven away from the

field.

The second theory regarding the origin of language is derisively called the "ding-dong theory". It was advanced by the German scholar and philologist Max Mueller, and it has been adopted by many others. According to this theory language has originated in the sense of rhythm innate in man and relating him to the rest of the universe which is essentially rhythmical. This theory is based on man's tendency to imitate, not sounds, but movements, in nature. It is believed that primitive man having observed the rhythm in the flowing of a stream and the swaying of the trees in the wind must have 'ding donged' phonetically to them, partly by way of accompaniment and partly in imitation. According to Bucher the most primitive form of speech was a sort of simple rhythmical hum or chant, keeping time with step in walking or with the hand at work. The habit of whistling while engaged in manual work, is even now, quite common. The 'ding-dong theory' may possibly contain a grain of truth but it is now almost discredited because in its entirety it can hardly be stated intelligibly.

The third theory regarding the origin of human speech is often called the 'pooh-pooh theory'. According to this theory the origin of language is to be traced to the involuntary exclamations of pain, surprise, pleasure or wonder which human beings make. The upholders of this theory want us to believe that what we now call language is only a refinement upon our emotional interjections like 'ah !' 'ha !' 'pshaw' etc., which are not far removed from the cries of animals. The theory derives its name from the expression 'pooh-pooh' which is employed in the phrase "to pooh-pooh a thing". By being often used as an expression of contempt or disgust, the word 'pooh-pooh' has come to acquire a definite meaning. Thus the verb to 'pooh-pooh' has become accepted in ordinary usage. The supporters of the theory believe that all language has originated in this way.

There is a fourth theory known as the "gesture theory" to which scholars like Wilhelm Wundt and Sir Richard Paget have traced the origin of speech. According to Wundt most primitive means of communication between human beings was by means of gestures made with the hand. This sign language is till employed by us when we have to communicate with a deaf person or with a person whose language is unknown to us. We beckon with the hand when we want him to come to us. Similarly we nod the head to convey agreement and shake it from side to side when we want to express disagreement. It is argued by the upholders of the gesture theory that a gesture by the hand is usually accompanied by a corresponding movement of the vocal organs. Thus in course of time man is supposed to have passed from sign language to spoken language. Sir Percy Nunn in his book "Education, Its Data and First Principles", develops this theory in full. He points out how in uttering the words 'I' and 'me' the lips are drawn towards the speaker in the same way as he

would point to himself with his finger while speaking. At the same time in saying 'you' or 'thou' the movement is towards the person addressed. The same directional difference can be noticed in the utterance of 'here' and 'there'. It is significant that even now while speaking with great animation we try to resort to gestures to supplement the efforts of our tongue.

In spite of the fact that all the theories mentioned above have been advanced from time to time to account for the origin of language we still have to admit that the problem remains unsolved. With each new theory in the field, we have become more and more convinced of the impossibility of arriving at the truth regarding the origin of language. Though there is some quantum of truth in each of these theories, we do not know, and may never know for certain how exactly language began. But we can understand something of the nature of language through a study of the processes of its development in form and meaning during the last several thousand years. The result of such a study can convince us that these processes are essentially the same as those we can imperfectly observe within the limits of our own life time.

Q. 2. Write an essay on the spoken and the written forms of language.

Ans. A language by which we mean a spoken language, may be defined as"a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which human beings communicate and co-operate with one another". Animal cries which may serve to communicate definable and significant ideas, are to be distinguished from language because they would not form detachable symbols like the sounds that are heard in a spoken word. In human speech we are making use of what are called our vocal organs for the articulation of definite sounds which, when arranged according to set patterns, form the words of a given language. We may say that a word like 'crow' employs a certain sequences of sounds to serve as the symbol for the particular word which we have in mind. The selection of these sounds to represent the name of this particular bird is something arbitrarily fixed upon by the speech community making use of the English language. Thus we see that in each word of the spoken language definite sequences of sounds are made to serve as the symbols for the ideas we want to express. Now because of the peculiarities in the movements of our vocal organs and a variety of other causes, the sequences of sounds used to express different ideas,may vary gradually from time to time. Hence the spoken form of any given language is liable to undergo change and development in the course of its history. This is what we mean when we say language is in a constant state of flux or that it is evolutionary and not static in its character. The development undergone by the English language in the last one thousand years can be understood by comparing a passage of old English writing with a passage from Modern English.

Written language which always comes later than the spoken form, implies the using of certain symbols for the sounds which are heard in the spoken language. While the spoken form of any word is a symbol of the thing referred to by that word the written form is the symbol of that symbol. Thus it is twice removed from the thing referred to. Hence it is less important than the spoken language.

In its most primitive form writing meant the carving, drawing or painting of the visible features of an experience or of symbolic elements representing it. In course of time certain elements in the pictures thus drawn acquire fixed meanings and then they came to be used as the symbols for corresponding words in the spoken language and to be arranged in the order that these words have in speech. When the association between the written symbol and the spoken word becomes fixed, the symbol may come to lose its original pictorial value and to deviate from its older form. At this stage the association has come to be one of written symbols and spoken sound, regardless of the meaning borne by the sound. Later the symbols are used purely in their phonetic value and the number of symbols may be lessened to such an extent that there is a particular symbol for every syllable in the spoken language. Examples of such 'syllabaries' are a very common form of writing. The alphabets of many Indian languages as well as the national alphabet of Japanese consist of such syllabaries. It is a further simplification of writing when these characters are used to represent not whole syllables but single sound of the language, as in Greek, Latin and derived alphabets including the English.

All these developments are gradual, and there is in most cases no deliberate and systematic examination of the sounds of a language for the sake of assigning a written symbol to each. Hence we seldom find perfect consistency in the relation between spoken and written forms of language. There are two main factors which reduce such consistency as might otherwise develop between the spellings and pronunciations of the words in a given language. One of these is the adoption of a foreign alphabet. In a language like English which has taken over a foreign alphabet like the Latin one, consistency is impossible because the alphabet does not contain enough signs for all the English vowels besides lacking the signs for th-sound, the sh-sound and the z-sound (as in azure), the wh-sound (as in what), the ng-sound (as in sing). At the same time we have such superfluous characters C Q and X. The second factor which interferes with the consistency of alphabetic writing is the necessary conservation of orthography. Opposed to this conservation of the written language is the evolutionary nature of language or the fact that all language at all time is in an unceasing state of change, a change which is unconscious but never ceasing. Because of this unceasing change, the orthography of every language becomes in course of time quite antiquated even in those features which were formerly essential to it.

Hence even if the spellings of words in a language start with being strictly phonetic they cease to be so in course of time. This is because of the written form remaining the same while the spoken language which is subject to phonetic change gradually changes. Thus the spellings which were used to express the pronunciations of given words at an earlier stage in the history of the language, continue to be used to express the altered pronunciations of these words at a later stage. This means that even if the spellings may have been strictly phonetic in the beginning they become more ideographic as time passes. This is exactly what has happened in a language like English. In an ideally recorded language each spoken sound should have one corresponding written symbol. In such a language, changes in pronunciation would naturally be indicated by changes in spelling. In languages like English where spelling and pronunciation have not kept the same pace in the changes they have undergone, we have to make use of some kind of phonetic alphabet like the one adopted by the International Phonetic Association to express correctly the pronunciation of words at different periods of the history of the language. Comparing the written and the spoken forms of a language we find that while writing has some advantages over speech, the latter enjoys certain other advantages of its own. While speaking, a person can make use of his hands and eyes to ensure a wider range of expressiveness than is possible in using the written language. Because speech has been used as a medium of expression by innumerable generations of speakers it has been able to achieve subtler variations of meaning than can be expressed in writing. At the same time writing has had for long the advantage of being more easy to preserve and reproduce. Also written records are easier to follow than spoken statements, because the ear can hear sounds only in succession while the eye can glance over a number of written words at a single glance. In following the spoken language a listener has to adjust himself to the speed of the speaker, while in reading one can either linger over difficult passage or skip over simple or less important ones. Recent inventions like the gramophone, the wireless and the tape-recording machine have enabled the spoken language to have some of the advantages which have long been enjoyed by its written form. But though these modern inventions may be of great help to future historians of the language in following the spoken English of the nineteenth or twentieth century, our knowledge of the past history of English has to be based on written records. Hence we have to find out how far records present an accurate picture of the spoken language of earlier times. As Henry Bradley has pointed out in a famous paper "on the relations between spoken and written language," most readers of English, today have developed a direct association between the written symbol and the idea expressed by it. But in earlier English, before English spelling had become permanently fixed, with the introduction of printing, most English writers had striven to record in their writing the actual pronunciation of the words they used and spelling was roughly phonetic.

The differences between speech and writing extend beyond the representation of single words to synax. Our lack of knowledge of the syntax of spoken English at an earlier period would often make a writer's records of the conversations of that period seem unreal or stilted to us. The tape recording of a speech will enable us to realise the great difference between the spoken and the written form of language. While it is true that we have only very clumsy devices for expressing loudness or intonation in writing, it is equally true that speech has no recognized equivalents for the various punctuation marks. People have now come to undertstand that advantages would result from lessening the differences between the spoken and the written forms of language, both of which can now be preserved for future.

Q. 3. Write a short essay on the three basic functions of language and discuss its multiple uses.

Ans. Language is often spoken of as a tool because it is used to perform the function of letting other people know our thoughts, ideas or emotions. It is different from most other tools in that it is used to serve a multiplicity of purposes. In accordance with the different purposes to be served, language is used in different ways and we respond differently to each particular use of language. For example, there is the language of science, journalism, advertising, political oratory, poetical effusion and prayer and worship. In these instances language is used as if it were a multipurpose tool which could be put to a variety of uses, as and when required. Many people, failing to understand the subtle and complicated nature of language commit the mistake of taking words in their literal meaning on all occasions. People who know better, however understand that the question-"How are you?,is only meant as a friendly greeting and is not to be mistaken as a request for a medical report.

INFORMATIVE FUNCTION :

One of the basic functions of language is to communicate information of some kind or another. Information, here, can include propaganda of all kinds and even deliberate misinformation. All informative discourse is used to describe the world around us and to reason about it. One may make use of true or false propositions, correct or incorrect argument and pass on information which is important or unimportant, general or particular. In any case the language used is said to be informative in its function.

EXPRESSIVE FUNCTION :

There are two other basic functions of language besides the informative. These are the expressive and the directive functions. While science provides us with instances of the best informative discourse, poetry gives the finest examples of the expressive function of language. No poet wants

to communicate mere information. On the other hand all poets attempt to communicate their own feelings and attitudes. When the poet Robert Burns compares his love to a red rose, which is newly sprung in June, or to melody that is sweetly played in tune, he is trying to express the emotion which he feels keenly and to arouse similar feelings in the readers. Expressive language is used not only by poets but also by other people when they want to give expression to their deep or tender feelings. The lover who whispers sweet nothings in the ear of his beloved is making use of expressive language to convey his passion and tenderness. The worshipper who fervently repeats the Lord's prayer or the verses of the 23rd psalm, is also making use of expressive language to bring out his feelings of wonder, awe and adoration. When dealing with expressive language in any form we are not to apply to it the common standard of truth or falsehood, correctness or incorrectness. Our enjoyment of poetry would be very much lessened if we were to judge the poet's statement on the basis of historical or scientific truths. We have to bear in mind the fact that the purpose of the poet in writing his poetry is not to convey information but to express emotion and to arouse it in the reader. It is true that some poems may have an informative content which cannot be ignored while dealing with their total effect. In such poems, language, instead of being merely expressive, is made to serve a multiple function to which we can turn shortly.

All expressive language may be analysed into two component elements. It can, first of all, be used to express the feeling or attitude of the speaker. Secondly, it can be used to evoke the same feeling or attitude in the hearer. It can also be used to do both these things at the same time. When a man, remaining in the solitude of his study, mutters curses to himself or prays earnestly to God or writes a love poem, his language is made to express his own feelings or attitude. It does not serve to evoke similar feelings or attitudes in other people. But when an orator tries to move his audience to share his enthusiastic feelings or a lover wooes his lady in a poetic language or when the watching crowd cheers its athletic team, language is used not merely to evince the attitudes of the speakers but also to evoke the same attitudes in the hearers.

DIRECTIVE FUNCTION :

The third basic function of language is to cause or prevent some overt action. The most obvious examples of this directive function of language are commands and requests. The mother who tells her little girl to say her prayers before going to bed, does not want to convey any information to her. Neither does she want to arouse any particular emotion in the child. The purpose of her language is to get results or to make the child do what is indicated. When a housewife tells the milkman to leave her bottle of milk at the doorstep she is using language directively. So also is the case when one is asking a question, because when we ask a question there is an implied request for an answer. Commands are distinguished

in a very subtle way from requests and any command can be turned into a request by adding a "please" at the beginning or by a suitable change in the tone of the voice or in the expression of the face. As directive discourse has no truth-value, it cannot be described as true or false. We may disagree about the propriety or reasonableness of a command or request but we can never disagree about its being true or false.

BLENDING OF THESE THREE FUNCTIONS :

In the foregoing paragraphs, we have tried to classify language by its three basic functions. These examples of informative, expressive and directive language have been compared by Irving M. Copil to chemically pure specimens. This three-fold division cannot be applied to all language mechanically because very often we find in the most ordinary use of language, a combination of all three functions. For example, a poem may be both informative and directive. A sermon may be, at the same time, both directive and expressive. This is to say, the preacher may try to cause appropriate action by the members of his congregation by evoking pious sentiments in them through expressive use of language. The sermon preached may also contain some facts which are conveyed through the informative use of language. A treatise on science, though primarily informative can also convey to the reader something of the writer's enthusiasm and thus serve the expressive function of language. In addition to this, it may also be directive in function, in-as-much-as it bids the reader to check for himself whether the conclusions arrived at by the author are correct. Thus we find that most ordinary uses of language involve all the three basic functions of conveying information, evincing emotion, and inducing action.

Language is thus made to serve multiple functions because effective communication often requires it. For example, by using language directively, we cannot always expect other people to take orders from us and obey them implicitly. Outside the narrow circle of parent and child, or employee and employer, the voicing of an imperative is not enough to bring about the desired action. A more indirect and subtle method must be employed to stimulate the desired action. In other words we have to make use of the multiple or mixed functions of language instead of making use of the nakedly imperative form when we want other people to act as we wish. Any kind of action can be caused only by evoking the appropriate attitude and communicating the relevant information. For example, a speaker addressing a group of benevolent persons can cause them to make their contributions to some particular charity by making use of the multiple functions of language. Instead of using nakedly imperative language, he can use language which is informative as well, by telling the hearers of the effectiveness of the charity in accomplishing benevolent results. Thus he persuades them to make their contributions. Here we are making use of informative discourse which is ultimately directive. In case the speaker has to deal with a group of people who

already know that the particular charity sponsored by him does have benevolent results and yet are not particularly inclined to make their contributions to it, he has to make use of a different approach. He has to use the very best expressive language he can command in order to arouse sufficiently benevolent feelings in his listeners. By making this kind of expressive discourse or moving appeal to their emotions, he will be putting his language to a multiple use which is at once expressive and directive. In case the same speaker, for the same purpose of getting charitable donations, has to address a group of people who are not benevolent in their attitude and who have no belief in the good work done by the charity, he will have to combine in his language all the three basic functions of conveying information, expressing emotion and inducing action. He has, first of all, to convince them of the benevolent results of the work done by the charity. Secondly he has to arouse their benevolent feelings. Thirdly these benevolent feelings must be so directed as to result in their making the desired contributions. In other words, besides being essential to successful communication, language must, at the same time, be used to serve all three functions by being informative, expressive and directive.

CEREMONIAL FUNCTION :

Certain writers have suggested that besides these basic uses language has one more use, namely the ceremonial one. By this is meant the use of language on social or ceremonial occasions. The different kinds of expressions used as words of greeting between people on social occasions, the portentous discourse of the Christian marriage ceremony and different kinds of phrases used in legal or state documents are all pointed out as examples of the ceremonial use of language. But what we have in all these examples may be considered as mixtures of the expressive and directive use of language and not anything new or different. Ceremonial greetings between friends serve the expressive function by evoking good will and sociability. The impressive language of the service at church for the marriage ceremony serves the expressive functions by emphasising the solemnity of the occasion and arousing appropriate feelings. The marriage service is also meant to direct the bride and groom to perform their roles as man and wife with a full and proper appreciation of the marriage contract. Thus we see that what has been called the "ceremonial" use of language is nothing but an example of the multiple functions it is often made to serve at one and the same time.

Q. 4. Describe the three different ways in which the word 'meaning' is used and explain why communication by means of words can never be perfect.

Ans. When we want to communicate with our fellow beings we naturally make use of the words in the language which form a system of conventionalized symbols that are supposed to mean the same things to

all users of the language. Still we do not always succeed in saying exactly what we mean; nor do we understand fully what other people say. Even with all the help provided by dictionaries and grammar books, we find that communication by means of words is never perfect.

To understand why this is so, we have to begin by considering how words have come to mean the things or ideas they stand for. In other words we have to discuss the meaning of 'meaning.' The truth is that we use the word 'meaning' in number of ways. At least three of these have to be clearly understood and borne in mind by us if we are to use words properly for the communication of ideas. First of all we use the word 'meaning' in the sense of what the speaker wishes to communicate. Secondly we use the word to convey the idea of what is suggested to a particular listener. Thirdly, the word meaning may indicate a more or less general habit of using a given word to indicate a given thing. Many people including writers on language, are apt to ignore the first two senses, in which the word 'meaning' is used. They cling too tenaciously to the third sense of the word, forgetting that the connection between a word, and the thing signified by it can never be absolute. The word, 'penny' for instance, suggests one kind of coin to the English who used the term first, while it suggests another kind of coin (a cent) to the Americans. It is no use saying that the word has a fixed or unchangeable meaning when, in actual practice, it is used to indicate two things to two different people. However, communication by means of words would become impossible unless the speakers of a language have some sort of agreement that certain words are to stand for certain things or ideas. Hence third meaning of 'meaning' that it is 'a more or less general habit of using a given word to indicate a given thing' is seen to be quite sensible and legitimate. This should not, at the same time, lead us into thinking that "this more or less general habit" is absolutely uniform or that dictionaries and grammar books can make it so.

We cannot say why certain words which we now use have come to signify the things they stand for and not some other things which are signified by other words. The truth is that the agreement to use certain words for certain things is basically an arbitrary one. It is also quite informal, habitual and impossible to be deliberately enforced. Though the education in schools and social intercourse, help to keep our language habits almost similar, perfect uniformity is not theoretically possible. This is true of words as well as of the ways of putting them together. It is equally true of the ways in which we express ideas and the ways in which we react to language.

Let us take a simple sentence like "Gopal gave Sita a mango". We could say off hand that any one can understand such a sentence perfectly. Yet when we come to analyse it, we find that the sentence conveys very little definite information. If we ask ourselves a few questions we can see how each word in the sentence limits the meaning to a very great

extent and that the position of the words limits it still further. First of all we have to ask ourselves whether Gopal and Sita are real or imaginary characters. Secondly we have to find out whether they are children or grownups. While writing such a sentence one could have been thinking of a little boy offering a mango to his little sister or to any other little girl. One could also think of a husband giving a sweet mango to his wife or a father offering the same to his daughter. As long as we do not know the exact relationship existing between Gopal and Sita we can only draw the following definite conclusions—

(a) Gopal is evidently male and animate and human. He may be either real or imaginary, young or old.

(b) Sita is evidently female and animate and human. She may be real or imaginary, a child or a woman.

(c) Mango indicates a sweet luscious fruit common in India and suggests that, in all probability Gopal and Sita are people living in India where this fruit is grown.

(d) The position of the words indicates that the gift was made by Gopal and received by Sita.

We can make information conveyed by the sentence more definite by adding a few more words. For instance, we say "The young boy Gopal gave his little sister a 'Prior' mango", we are making it clear that Gopal and Sita are two young children,'' brother and sister and evidently fond of each other.' We also make it clear that the variety of the mango given was the 'Prior' which is considered very sweet and fleshy. Even when the sentence was originally written, all these ideas were there in the mind of the writer, but they were not fully conveyed to the reader by the words used. Hence the ideas have to be so expressed as to stimulate similar ideas in the mind of the hearer. For this, we have to take the following points into consideration :—

(1) The relation between words and the minds of the people who use them.

(2) The relation between the words and the things and activities or ideas they stand for.

(5). The relations of the words to each other.

In dealing with the first point we have to remember that the human brain operates very much like an electronic computing machine. It has millions of short nerve lengths which may be compared to wires, and innumerable nerve connections comparable to switches. Electrical impulses pass through this very complex system at a very regular speed and the passage of these impulses constitutes our thinking. Events in the outside world make their own impressions on our nervous system. We come to associate words with these impressions and not directly with the events themselves. When trying to communicate by means of words,

we are trying to arouse similar impressions in the nervous system of the person we are talking to. We can only hope to create similar impressions and not identical ones. Our hearer's reactions to the words used by us will depend on his own past experiences and the impressions made by them on his nervous system.

The second point regarding the relations between words and the things they stand for is also important. We must remember that the connection between a word and the thing it signifies is purely arbitrary. It is also never quite the same on two occasions, as the thing itself is all the time changing. Again, we have to consider the fact that nothing is the same, even at a given instant, to two different observers. The impressions made by the same thing on the two persons will vary because their senses, nervous systems and background of past experience are bound to vary. The sight of an Alsatian dog will arouse two different reactions in the mind of its proud master and that of a burglar attempting to break into premises. It follows that "using the same words for the same things" is not even theoretically possible, because nothing is the same to two different persons. Our remote ancestors, in developing language, believed that many things were permanent, identical and alike to all observers and the structure reflects this belief. The development of modern physics and neurology has proved that they were wrong.

Many attempts have been made, from time to time, to devise and encourage the use of a language which is suitable for perfect communication. In such a language every word is to have a fixed meaning which can be recognized by any properly trained person. The arrangement of words is completely systematic and logical and unaffacted by human habits of speech. From what has already been said, it is evident that such a language would be possible only if words operated in perfectly uniform medium, of which each human skull should contain a part. As this is impossible, no such ideal language can be devised. An approximate agreement as to the significance of words and word arrangements is the only thing possible in practice. Without such an agreement no communication is possible. Among people of similar background and training communication over a limited range of subjects can reach a very high degree of reliability. Dictionaries and grammar books can increase the uniformity of our speech habits and thus help better communication. But we cannot ignore the fact that language can never be an objective, independent structure governed by fixed laws. It can at best be used to stimulate similar reactions in nervous systems which are necessarily different from one another. Its only importance lies in the effect on the nervous system of those who use it. If we understood this nature of language we would realise that communication by means of words can never be perfect. We would not then complain that other people do not say what they mean or that they do not understand us when we talk plain English.

Q. 5. Discuss briefly the aims and methods of the historical study of language.

Ans. All natural languages, of which English is only one example out of nearly three thousand now spoken, are "historically developed, socially learned, orally transmitted systems of communication." Modern linguistics, while laying emphasis on studying the structural aspect of language, is likely to neglect the importance of the historical study of language. It is always possible to study any language in either of two ways. First of all there is the language study known as synchronic linguistics. In this kind of study we are considering language purely as a system of communication operating at given time and disregarding the ways in which the system has been changing through time and is still continuing to change through use. In studying language like this we are ignoring certain fundamental facts about language in general. We are treating language as if it were static and not evolutionary. The right kind of language study, on the other hand, is what is called diachronic linguistics. It involves the historical study of language. The aim of the historical study of language is to obtain a full understanding of a language by concentrating not only on its present form and function but also on its history and development. In other words, the aim of the historical study of a language is to acquaint the student not only with the anatomy and physiology of the language but also with "its phylogeny and ontogeny."

IMPORTANCE OF HISTORICAL STUDY :

In studying all natural languages we have to concern ourselves with their historical developments. This is not necessary in the case of artificial languages which have been devised to serve particular purposes. In an artificial language change and development are ruled out by its very nature which does not admit of historical mutability. The rules of an artificial language are all laid down before the language begins to be used. Since the rules define and control the use of the language, a change in the rules cannot be brought about by the actual using of the language. On the other hand, the rules of a natural language are gradually evolved after the actual using of the language. This means that changes in the use of the language are naturally reflected in changes in the rules of language use. As language continues to change by being used, its rules also go on changing. So far as natural languages are concerned these rules are only the formulations of the observed regularities of language use. Whenever we find a clash between the fact of the language as it is spoken and the rules which are already in existence regarding the use of that language, we have to conclude that formulation of the rules is inaccurate as applied to the language use at the time. This is a fact we can understand by a historical study of language.

REASONS FOR STUDYING THE HISTORY OF LANGUAGE :

(i) There are a good many reasons why a man should make a historical study of his language. To begin with, it is as necessary and desirable as the study of the history of one's own country. Because history has made man what he is today we have to study history to understand something of his past. The language of man which he has learned from other people around him is the creation or the product of the society which uses it as well as of that society's historical antecedents. It is now a generally accepted fact that the history of a society is well-reflected in its language and that a person's language always indicates the history of the societies in which that language was developed. A man can study the history of his nation or people properly and fully only if he has a knowledge of the history of his own language. In studying the history of English language one finds that after the Norman conquest while animals like ox, sheep, deer, calf, swine were still known by their Anglo-Saxon names, the flesh of those animals as used for food was denoted by French words like beef, mutton, venison, veal, pork, bacon. This shows how the 'Saxon' serf had a charge of the animals, when alive, though, after being killed for meat they were eaten by his Norman masters. This single example would serve to indicate how the history of a nation is reflected in its language. Hence the history of the language is to be studied as something closely bound up with the history of the people speaking it.

(ii) A second reason for studying the history of one's language is that it enables one to read and understand properly the great written records of his national history and the fine monuments of his civilization. Though every Englishman cannot be a specialist in Old English, or Middle English, his understanding of the early history of his people would be much increased if he could read the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle or the Peterborough Chronicle in the original. Similarly his appreciation of the plays of Shakespeare would be very much increased by a knowledge of Elizabethan English.

(iii) Another reason for studying the history of one's language is that it liberates one from a narrow view of the language as it is at present. Through a historical study of the language one comes to know clearly that the rules of grammar are not fixed for ever like the laws of nature. On the other hand, many a time in studying the history of language one comes to realise that what is now considered wrong in usage was not always so. Similarly many usages which were considered wrong in the past have now been accepted as right. In other words, a historical study of the language shows one how the making of the language involves the replacing

of some grammatical rules by others from time to time. Usages which were considered as errors in the past have gone into the making of present day English and so long as the language continues to be spoken there is no guarantee that it will be governed by its present rules of grammar at a future date. A historical study of the language can make us understand the nature of language better. With this understanding will come greater tolerance and freedom from pedantry.

USE OF THE STUDY OF THE HISTORY OF LANGUAGE :

When we study the history of a language we can understand and account for many of its apparent irregularities and irrationalities. We find for instance, in English, a set of nouns which have plurals quite different from the rest. These mutated plurals, as they are called, do not form their plurals by adding an 's' or 'es' to the singular forms. Man, foot, mouse, tooth all have their plurals formed by 'mutation' of the vowels which gives us men, feet, mice and teeth instead of mans, foots, mouses and tooths. Unless one knows the history of the language one cannot have a satisfying explanation for these irregular or mutated plurals in modern English. Again we find, during our study of the history of the language, that very often rules of grammar are upset by the operation of the principle of analogy or by the contact with a people speaking a foreign language following an entirely different set of rules. Though we cannot explain a language logically, we can at least account for what appears illogical in it by studying its history. Also by studying the language at different periods of growth and development we can become more objective in our study. We can become acquainted with linguistic methods by a historical study of our own language because it is now pursued with the help of modern methods of language study.

METHOD RECOMMENDED BY WRENN :

In making a historical study of language, the following method recommended by C. L. Wrenn[1] may very well be adopted. Here one has to begin with the principles of language study universally followed at present. It will be profitable, in this connection, to become familiar with the works of Bloomfield,[2] Wyld,[3] Sweet,[4] and Sapir[5] on the subject. Another useful book on the subject which is to be studied along with those mentioned above is L. Urban's book entitled "Language and Reality" (New York, 1935).

Having thus familiarised himself with the main principles of language study, the student should next try to acquire a clear idea of the main

1. C.L. Wrenn, The English Language—chapter VIII
2. Bloomfield, L : Language (London, 1935).
3. Wyld, H.C. : The Historical Study of the Mother tongue, (London, 1913).
4. Sweet, H : The Historical Study of Language—(London 1900).
5. Sapir, E : Language, (New York, 1921).

points in general phonetics. He should also be able to master the alphabet of the "International Phonetic Association" which is in general use. Thus he will learn to avoid the dangers arising from confusing spelling with pronunciation. He will be able, with some practice, to write down any sound accurately with the help of phonetic symbols and translate the phonetic representations of words he comes across in books into the actual sounds. Daniel Jone's book "The Pronunciation of English" can be of very great help to the student since it provides practising exercises for the transcription of given words into phonetic script.

STEPS IN THE STUDY OF FORMAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR :

The student is now ready to attempt the study of a formal historical grammar like that of Henry Sweet's "A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical" (Oxford 1892). From this he should, proceed to a short history of the language like that of H. C. Wyld in England or A. C. Baugh in America. The next step is to read some passages of different types of English belonging to different periods in the history of the language. This can be more profitably done if the student cultivates the habit of using the shorter Oxford English Dictionary as it shows the changes in the meanings of the words during the whole modern English period. After using this dictionary as a companion to his reading for some time, the student should proceed to make use of The New English Dictionary. Its ten large volumes deal with the whole development of the language since the twelfth century and include the etymologies of all English words. For the new meanings and words which have come into use since the publication of 'The New English Dictionary' the student must consult its supplementary volume published in 1933. He can also be helped by Skeat's interesting work "Principles of English Etymology."

Having proceeded thus far with his study, the student can now read a few texts, from all periods of the language in their original form. Then only will he be able to know what the language was like in the earlier periods of its history. Henry Sweet's "Anglo Saxon Primer" and his "First Steps in Anglo Saxon," as well as Sweet's or Wyatt's "Anglo-Saxon Reader" can be recommended for the Old English period. For the Middle English period Sweet's First and Second Primers of Middle English may be taken up first. They can be followed by A. S. Cook's "Literary Middle English Reader" or Emerson's " Middle English Reader". For the modern period a representative selection may be made from the literary masterpieces of the age, taking care to read them in their original spelling.

Having arrived at this stage, the student would have obtained some idea of general linguistic principles, the uses of the phonetic method of transcription, and the ability to use a dictionary made on historical lines and he would have read for himself specimens of English literature belonging to the different periods in the history of the language. Now he can very well take up some general history of the language, with more confidence. H. C. Wyld's "Historical Study of the Mother Tongue," Henry

Bradley's "The Making of English," Otto Jesperson's "The Growth and Structure of the English Language," A. C. Baugh's "History of the English Language" and O. F. Emerson's "The History of the English Language" are all excellent books, each in its own way, though none of them can be said to be complete or final in any sense. Along with these one may study Sweet's great work, "New English Grammar" and C. T. Onion's book on "Advanced English Syntax". When one has got thus far in his study of the language, he will be in a position to decide himself which branch of the subject he should take up for more specialized study.

Q. 6. Discuss the important general principles to be remembered in studying the history of language.

Ans. In studying the history of any language, there are certain general principles which have to be constantly borne in mind. The first of these relates to the nature of language which is never static and hence naturally presupposes change and development. This is easy to understand when we remember that language is the expression of our thoughts and emotions by means of the sounds which are produced by certain movements of the human organs of speech. Now the thoughts and feelings of humanity in general, or of any section of it in particular, cannot be the same at all ages. The thoughts and feelings and ideas of community or race are sure to change from generation to generation in a hundred different ways, as they are capable of enrichment, expansion and modification in accordance with the advance of civilization or the changing fortunes of its history. Also the bodily movements by which the sounds of speech, are produced, like all other human activities, tend to be altered or are likely to be altered from time to time though not always consciously. When we remember that even the slightest change in our manner of moving the vocal organs can result in considerable alteration in the nature of the sound which is produced, it does not surprise us that the pronunciation of the sounds of any language should change from time to time. To quote Professor H. C. Wyld "The drama of the development of Language takes place so to speak, upon the lips and in the minds of living human beings and not in books or written documents". This naturally implies that any language will continue to change so long as it continues to be spoken. It will cease to change only when it becomes a dead language which is no longer spoken by human beings. We have instances of such dead languages, which remain static, in classical Latin and Greek and Vedic Sanskrit. Other languages which are being spoken by human beings in different parts of the world, are all undergoing change and development. Hence the first principle we have to remember in studying the history of language is that language changes by being spoken.

CHANGES IN PRONUNCIATION :

The next important principle we have to bear in mind is that changes in pronunciation are always very slow and gradual. Every individual, in learning his mother tongue, begins by mastering the different movements of the vocal organs which result in the production of the sounds of that language. Even when he has thus acquired the sounds of his speech, he may not always carry out the movements of his vocal organs so carefully as to produce exactly the sounds he has in mind. He may occasionally vary the movement of his tongue or lips or jaws, ever so slightly, in some direction or other. Each individual may vary slightly the movements of his vocal organs according to his personal habits and may thus form his individual speech habits. This new speech habit necessarily results in the production of a sound slightly different from the one which the speaker had intended to produce. But the difference between the two sounds is at first so very slig! t as to be almost imperceptible except to the trained ear. The speaker himself is totally unconscious of having made any change either in his speech habit or in the pronunciation of the sound he has started with. He does not realise that he has made any alteration in the movement of his speech organs and he does not recognise any change in the pronunciation of the sound he has produced. If the change in the movement of his vocal organs or in the quality of the sound produced were less imperceptible he would immediately correct both and would feel that he made a "slip of the tongue". This brings us to the conclusion that changes in pronunciation are always unconscious and, very imperceptible at first. Now new speech habit could never be started by a sudden, considerable, and conscious divergence from the movements of the vocal organs by which a speaker has been producing the sounds of his speech. We have therefore, to conclude that all new departures in pronunciation are unconscious and that sound change is always gradual. Besides, we have to remember that the tendency to variation being continuous, when the individual has already informed a new speech habit, instead of sticking to it, he makes it a fresh starting point and proceeds to diverge again from it.

DIRECTION OF CHANGE :

What relates to the speech habit of an individual is also true of other members of his community who are living together in close contact with one another. They all naturally tend to change their pronunciation, agreeing in the particular direction in which their tendency leads. There is such an agreement in the direction of change among members of the same community because in social intercourse each speaker tries to assimilate his own speech to that of the other persons with whom he has most intimate contact. The smaller the community and the closer the contact between the members, the more closely will their speech agree. But it is true that two human beings can never be exactly alike in all respects. As such, it is inconceivable that in a comparatively large

community all the members should agree exactly in their ways of speech. In a community there will be speech habits and tendencies common to all the members and also speech habits which are characteristics of a few individuals. Those tendencies which are not common to the whole community, gradually become eliminated by the wear and tear of social intercourse while those which pervade the community are retained as the universal tendencies of community. Thus we come to the conclusion that at a given time in a particular community a given sound will tend to be pronounced in the same way and also will tend to change in the same direction. This is true of all the words in which the sound occurs under the same conditions.

COMBINATIVE CHANGE AND ISOLATIVE CHANGE :

According to the conditions under which a sound occurs it may undergo changes which are known as Combinative Changes. These combinative changes are changes in the pronunciation of a sound brought about by the influence of other sounds in the same word or sentence. These are to be distinguished from Isolative sound Changes which occur in sounds without any influence being exerted upon them by other sounds in the word or sentence. The change of Old English (e:) to 'ee' pronunced (i:), in Modern English is an instance of an Isolative change. By this old English feit becomes Modern English feet. In the series of changes known as i or j mutation in Old English we have instances of combinative changes. By mutation all original back vowels, when followed in the next syllable by i or j becomes fronted to the corresponding front vowel. So it is clearly not an Isolative change but a Combinative one.

From what has been said above, it is evident that the statement that the same sound always changes in the same way must be modified by the addition of the words "under the same conditions". Some times the precise conditions which determine a sound change may not be known. Then it may appear that we have to deal with an exception to the law of sound changes. But actually what appears like an exception to the law of sound change may be the result of some combinative factors being at work. It is also possible that the exceptional form indicates a borrowing from another dialect of the same language where the sound changes have not followed the same pattern. The principle of analogy also can account for these 'exceptional forms.'

RISE OF DIALECTS :

The next important question in studying the history of language is that of rise of dialects. Though sound changes occur regularly and uniformly within the same speech community, outside the narrow limits of the community the same original sound may undergo very different developments. Such developments are responsible for the differentiation of a language into several different dialects. The dialects of one and the same language, though different from one another in the pronunciation of particular words or in their meaning and usage, still have so much in

common that the speakers of each dialect can understand all the other dialects. But, if for some reason, political, occupational or geographical, these speakers of different dialects are cut off from one another for hundreds of years, each dialect will have its independent development, because different tendencies of variation may flourish in the various parts of what was originally a single community. After the newly formed communities have had their speech developed in different directions and on different lines over vast periods of time, it will be impossible for them to understand one another. When such a stage is reached, we say that the different dialects have become differentiated into different languages. These different languages, however, will have certain common characteristics on account of which people can see a sort of "family likeness" among them. Such a group of related languages will naturally be called A Family of Languages. All the existing languages in the world are seen to belong to a few important families of languages like to Indo-European, the Semitic, the Dravidian and others.

DIALECT AND LANGUAGE :

It is easy to understand from what has been said above that the difference between a language and a dialect is one of degree and not of kind. By dialects we mean the variants of divergent forms of a language which are different from one another only in certain features, and even in these, only to such an extent that the speakers of two different dialects are mutually intelligible. When these differences have become very much enhanced as a result of the free and isolated development of each of the dialects over a long period of time, it will be impossible for the speakers of the dialects to be still mutually intelligible. When such a stage is reached we say that the dialects have become differentiated into new languages.

ANALOGY :

Along with sound change the other great factors which influence the development of a language are Analogy and Foreign contact. Of these, Analogy may be considered first. It can briefly be described as the process by which words become associated in the mind in groups according to meaning, grammatical function, resemblance of sound or to a combination of any two, or even all three, of these. When words have thus become associated together in the mind, the natural human tendency is to connect them still more intimately and to treat them in exactly the same way. Analogy helps us in conjugating verbs, declining nouns, and forming adverbs from adjectives. As a rule in dealing with our own native language we arrive at the same results as the majority of other speakers of the same language by applying the principle of analogy. In other words the association group in our mind will be the same as theirs. We form the plural of a noun like 'boys'. Even if we have not heard the adverb 'sweetly' we can easily form from it the adjective 'sweet' on the analogy of innumerable other adverbs similarly derived

FALSE ANALOGY :

The principle of analogy may also lead us to form the past tense of 'fear' on the analogy of that of 'clear', and to arrive at the form 'feared'. These are instances of analogy which agree with the current usage of Standard English at the present time and hence according to the older school of grammarians they are instances of "true" analogy. At the same time, if on the analogy of the past of 'clear' we proceed to form the past tense of 'hear' we would be arriving at the form "heared" which is not the form used in standard English where the past tense of 'hear' is 'heard'. This according to the older historians of language is an instance of "false" or "wrong" analogy. It is to be remembered that in studying the history of a language we often come across instances of what at one stage was considered 'false analogy', later on becoming part of the accepted usage. This only indicates that from age to age the association groups of a community become changed in their content. For instance in what are known as 'mutation plurals', which include nouns like 'teeth', 'geese', 'feet' etc. Old English had the mutated vowel in the dative singular as well as in the nominative and accusative plural whereas the Genitive plural and Dative plural had the unmutated vowel. In Modern English in the case of those few nouns which preserved mutation the whole singular was formed on the analogy of the Nominative and Accusative singular of Old English which did not have mutation. The whole plural was based on the type of the Nominative and Accusative Plural which had the mutation. This happened because the case-sense did not survive long in the history of the language and in Modern English the Dative case relation is no longer felt. As we go on with our study of the history of language, we see how from time to time new departures from the historically accepted usage are made through the working of the principle of analogy.

FOREIGN CONTACT :

Coming to the next factor namely foreign contact, which has a remarkable effect on the history of a language, we find that when two communities speaking two different languages come into close contact, the speech of each becomes considerably influenced by the other. If the contact between the two communities is intimate enough to make them fuse gradually into a single community there will be at first a period of bilingualism, during which all members of the community speak both the languages. After this, one of the two language ceases to be spoken and the other emerges as the speech of the whole community. In conditions like these the pronunciation of both the languages is considerably modified and there are many mutual exchanges in vocabulary. This is the Direct Influence of one language upon another.

PERIOD OF BILINGUALISM :

During the period of bilingualism, each of the two languages becomes spoken with a 'foreign accent' as many of its characteristic sounds are given up in favour of those of the other which most resemble it. This is

illustrated by the very un-English pronunciation of English, in the districts of Wales, where, for many years, English has been spoken alongside of Welsh. We can imagine how such a fate might have overtaken the pronunciation of Norman French which was spoken in England for a long time before it finally died out. The poet Chaucer was aware of this when he wrote about his Lady Prioress :—

And French she spak after the school of Startford atte-Bowe;
For French of Parisse was to her unknowe.

During a period of bilingualism the speakers of each language usually introduce words from the other language into their discourse because they are equally at home in both the languages. The first words thus introduced will be those denoting new subjects or ideas for which there are no existing native terms. But gradually the process is extended to words for which corresponding native terms exist. It is in this way that familiar words like 'skin', 'sky', 'they', 'their', 'them' etc. were introduced from Scandinavian into English after the Danes had settled down in England by the side of the English. In cases like those of Scandinavian and English many words though differing slightly in form in each language, are perfectly intelligible to all speakers in either form. This accounts for the indiscriminate adoption of many Old Norse (Scandinavian) words into English. After Old Norse had died out in England the surviving language of the Anglo-Saxons was left with a large admixture of Norse loan words. Chief among the languages which have thus directly influenced the English language, are Norman French and Old Norse.

INDIRECT INFLUENCE :

The indirect influence of one language upon another is that which is exerted through literature. It may happen that writers introduce into their writings some foreign words from ancient or modern languages. Though some of these words remain confined to literary use some other gain currency, passing into everyday speech. Many new conceptions, new substances and inventions are given Greek or Latin names taken straight from the dictionary They remain learned words or become popular ones according to the nature o the ideas or objects they signify. For example though 'phonograph' a compound word made up of two Greek words is of learned origin, and it has passed into pupular use with the widespread use of the machine. On the other hand words like 'eftsoon', 'whilom', 'welkin' are still confined to literary use, because no practical purpose is served by dragging them into everyday speech.

While speaking about foreign contact we have to mention the influence of one dialect upon another. It has been of great importance in the history of the English language. Standard English has been modified from time to time by the pronunciation and grammatical forms characteristic of various regional or class dialects.

Q. 7. Write an essay on the mechanism of human speech.

Ans. While man shares with other animals the ability to produce sounds by using some of his body's mechanisms he differs from them in having been able to organize the range of sounds which he can emit into a highly efficient system of communication. Non-human animals never progress beyond the stage of using the sounds they produce as a reflex of certain basic stimuli to indicate fear, hunger, sexual excitement, etc. However, man like other animals uses for the production of speech-sounds organs whose primary physiological function is quite unconnected with vocal communication and which are situated in the vocal tract.

AIR EXPELLED FROM LUNGS :

The most usual source of energy for the production of speech is provided by an air-stream expelled from the lungs. Though there are some languages possessing sounds which require no pulmonic air for their articulation, all the essential sounds of English need lung air for their articulation. So English utterances are largely shaped by the physiological limitations imposed by the capacity of our lungs and the muscles controlling their action. There are various technical devices for investigating the activity of the lungs and their controlling muscles in articulation.

POSITION OF VOCAL CORDS :

The stream of air from the lungs undergoes important modifications in the upper stages of the respiratory tract before acquiring the quality of a speech sound. First of all in the trachea or wind-pipe it passes through the larynx which is a casing formed of cartilage and muscle, situated in its upper part. It contains the vocal cords housed in it from back to front. The vocal cords are two folds of ligament and elastic tissue capable of being brought together or parted by muscular action. The opening between them is called the glottis. Biologically the vocal cords are meant to act as a valve preventing the entry into the trachea and the lungs of any foreign body or to have the effect of enclosing the air within the lungs to assist in muscular effort of the arms or abdomen. In using them for speech we have adapted and elaborated this original open-or-shut function of the cords in the following manner—

> First of all the vocal cords may be brought together and the glottis held tightly closed with the lung air pent up below it. This kind of glottal stop precedes the energic articulation of vowels or the reinforcement of a p, t or k. People with cleft palates turn the

p, t and k sounds into glottal stop because the nasal air escape prevents them from achieving proper compression in the mouth cavity.

Secondly the vocal cords may be held apart and glottis kept open so that when the air stream is expelled with sufficient energy there is audible glottal friction resulting in an 'h' sound. The so called voiceless sounds are produced by the vocal cords in this position.

Thirdly the vocal cords may be brought sufficiently close together that they vibrate when subjected to air pressure from the lungs because the compressed air is forcing an opening through the glottis. This vocal cord vibration produces voice or phonation, a normal feature of all vowel sounds and of such consonants as z compared with s. The vibration of the vocal cords can be felt by touching the neck in the region of the larynx while saying ah! or z on a low note. The opening and closing action of the vocal cords or vibration cycles per second are more frequent in the normal speaking voice of a woman than in that of a man. The more rapid the rate of vibration of the cords, the higher is the pitch of the voice. Similarly the loudness of the speaking voice can be modified by altering the size of the pull of air escaping from the lungs at each vibration of the vocal cords. Normally human beings soon learn to manipulate the glottal mechanism so as to achieve any desired change of pitch or loudness while speaking. Control of this mechanism being exercised by the ear, deaf persons find it very difficult. In producing voiceless position while in the more normal whisper involving more energetic articulations there is greater stricture in the glottal region with the air escaping in the region of the arytenoids. The most important of the activities of the larynx is the production of voiced and voiceless sounds and the glottal stop. With the help of a laryngoscope we can notice what actually happens in the production of each of these. Leaving the larynx the air stream is subjected to modifications depending on the shape assumed by the upper cavities of the pharynx and mouth and according to the closing or opening of the nasal cavity. These cavities function as principal resonators of the note produced in the larynx. The pharyngeal cavity extends from the top of the larynx and oesophagus, passing the epiglottis and the root of the tongue to the region behind the soft palate. The shape and volume of this chamber can be considerably modified by the constriction of the muscles enclosing the pharynx, the movement of the back of the tongue and the position of the soft palate which can be raised to exclude the nasopharynx as well as the raising of the larynx itself. The position of the tongue in the mouth, whether it is advanced or retracted, will affect the size of the oropharyngeal cavity and

must therefore be included in the description of any vowel.

AIR STREAM :

There are three ways in which the air stream can escape from the pharynx :—

1. The soft palate may be lowered as in normal breathing and the air can be allowed to escape through the mouth and nose. This happens in the articulation of the French nasalised vowel as in the phrase "un bon vin blanc".
2. The soft palate may be lowered and complete obstruction at some point may prevent the escape of air through the mouth. A purely nasal escape is thus made possible resulting in the articulation of consonants like (m, n, g,) as in sum, sun, sung.
3. The soft palate may be raised, eliminating the action of the nasopharynx and the stream of air allowed to escape entirely through the mouth. All normal English sounds except the nasal sounds mentioned above are the results of the air stream escaping through the mouth. The shape assumed by the mouth cavity determines finally the quality of most English speech sounds. This is because far more finely controlled variations of shape are possible here than anywhere else in the vocal tract. Except for the teeth in the front, the hard palate forming the roof of the mouth, and the pharyngeal wall in the rear, all the other parts of the mouth are movable. These include the lips, the various parts of the tongue, lower jaw and the soft palate with the pendent uvula.

LIP POSITIONS :

The lips may be held apart in any one of six different ways in articulation :

i. they may be close enough to cause audible friction when the air passes through with or without voicing. The voiceless f and the voiced v are thus produced.
ii. the lips may be held sufficiently far apart so that no friction is felt when the air passes through. This "spread lip position" is assumed for a tense variety of vowel as in 'see'.
iii. The lips may be in a relaxed position or neutral position as in pronouncing the vowel in 'get'.
iv. they may be held wide apart in the open position as when pronouncing the vowel in 'card'.
v. They may be tightly pursued so that the opening is small and rounded in the close rounded position as in the pronunciation of the vowel in 'no'.
vi. The lips may be held apart with slight projection and rounding as when we say 'got'. This is the open rounded position. Thus it is seen

that lip position is very significant in the articulation of English vowels. The consonants excepting [p, b, m, w] whose primary articulation involves lip action tend to share the lip position of the adjacent vowel. Also the lower lip actively participates in the production of the [f] and [v] sounds by making a light contact with the upper teeth.

TONGUE POSITION :

The tongue being very flexible and capable of assuming a variety of positions within the mouth, is of utmost importance in the articulation of both vowels and consonants. For the sake of convenience in describing tongue position in articulation we speak of the front of the tongue (the part lying opposite the hard palate when the tongue is at rest, its tip lying behind the lower teeth), the back of the tongue which faces the soft palate) and the centre of the tongue (where the front and back of the tongue meet). The entire upper area of the tongue is called dorsum, the section facing the teeth ridge is called the blade and its extremity the tip, while the two edges of the tongue are called the rims. Usually in the articulation of vowels the tongue tip remains low behind the lower teeth while the body of the tongue may be bunched up in different ways as when the front part is considerably raised while saying 'he' or the back is most prominent while pronouncing the vowel in 'who'. The whole tongue surface may be comparatively flat and low while saying 'ah'. These activities of the tongue, together with the variations in lip position result in dividing the mouth cavity into two—a forward one behind the lips and a rear one in the pharyngeal different parts of the mouth in articulating sounds of differing qualities. The tip articulates with the teeth for the sounds and blade articulates with the alveolar ridge for [t, d, s, z,] and [n,] while the apical contact is partial in the [ ] sounds and intermittent in the rolled (r) sound. The raising of the front of tongue against or near the hard palate (palatalization) in addition to articulation between the blade and the alveolar ridge results in sounds like (.) as in share, pleasure.This raising is an essential feature of the (j) sound intially in 'yield'. The back of the tongue comes into contact with the soft palate being raised as in pronouncing (k) and lowered for (g) as in sing. It is also possible to have a narrowing between the soft palate and the back of the tongue resulting in the last sound of the Scottish word 'loch'. While in pronouncing vowels the tongue is usually held in a convex position in relation to the roof of the mouth, consonantal articulations like (r) in 'red' and ( ) in 'table' are marked by a hollowing of the body of the tongue. The surface of the tongue seen from back to front may also assume different forms in articulation. A narrow groove runs from back to front down the centre line in pronouncing the (s) sound. There is a more diffuse groove in the case of (s). Also the entire tongue may be literally contracted with or without a depression in the centre as in the (r) sounds. Now the oral speech mechanism is readily accessible to observation with the help of still and moving X-ray photography.

FACTS NEEDED TO DESCRIBE SOUNDS :

The complex modifications which the air stream expelled from the lungs undergoes at various points of the vocal tract before escaping through the mouth or nose have been summarised above. It is now evident that in describing any sound we have to consider the following basic facts :—

i. The nature of the air stream, whether it is expelled from the lungs (i) it is also possible to depend on stomach for articulation.

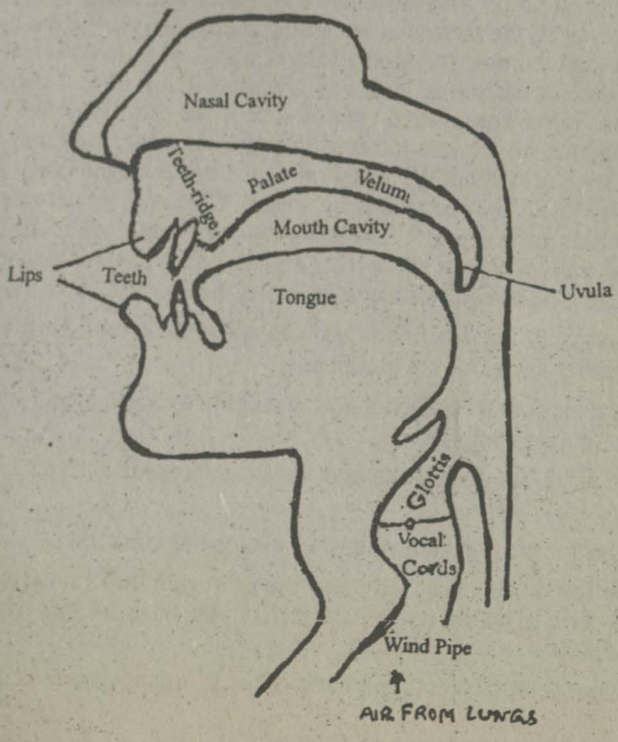
ii. The action of the vocal cords, whether they are closed, wide apart, or vibrating.

iii. The position of the soft palate, whether it is raised or lowered, to decide whether the sound has nasal resonances.

iv. The disposition of the various movable organs of the mouth. The shape of the lips and tongue must be known to determine the nature of the oral and upper pharyngeal cavities.

Moreover, it is necessary to know whether there is any secondary stricture or tenseness which accompanies the primary articulation. In the case of a sound with no steady state to describe one should indicate

SPEECH-ORGANS



the kind of movement which is taking place while it is produced. Thus it is possible to describe the mechanism of human speech and point out how variations in the qualities of sounds are achieved through varying movements of the vocal organs during the act of speaking.

Q. 8. Attempt a classification of speech sounds with special reference to English.

Ans. From a study of the mechanism of speech it is seen that the production of speech sound involves the action of a source of energy, namely, a stream of air expelled from the lungs, a vibrator namely, the vocal cords and the movement of certain supraglottal organs like the soft palate and the movable parts of the mouth. The size and shape of the vocal tract, the condition of the vocal cords (whether vibrating or not), the position of the soft palate (whether raised or lowered), the disposition of the tongue and the shape assumed by the lips are factors which determine the quality of the speech sounds produced.

According to our manner of handling the air stream expelled from the lungs speech sounds are broadly divided into vowels and consonants. The criterion of distinction between vowel and consonants has been one of stricture the articulation of vowels being not accompanied by any closure or narrowing in the speech tract, while that of consonants necessitating closure or a narrowing involving audible friction. While in the case of vowels the air stream has a free, unimpeded escape through the mouth (and the nose too, in the case of nasalised vowels) it meets with a closure or narrowing involving audible friction in consonantal articulation. In the consonantal type of sounds we can easily feel the contacts and the movements involved in articulation and they may be produced with or without the vibration of the vocal cords. When the vocal cords vibrate, the consonants are voiced. When they do not vibrate the consonants are voiceless. Vowels, on the other hand, are all voiced sounds and the movements of the vocal organs during the articulation of vowels cannot be so easily felt or assessed as those of the consonants.

CONSONANTS : In the description and classification of consonants we have to answer the following questions :—

i. Is the air stream set in motion by the lungs or by some other means? (Pulmonic or nonpulmonic)

ii. Is the air stream forced outwards or drawn inwards ? (Egressive or ingressive)

iii. Do the vocal cords vibrate or not ? (Voiced or voiceless).

iv. Is the soft palate raised, directing the air stream through the mouth or lowered allowing it to escape through the nose ? (Oral, nasal or nasalised).

v. At what point or points and between what organs does the closure

or narrowing take place ? (place of articulation).

vi. What is the type of closure of narrowing at the point of articulation? . (Manner of articulation).

When we say that the consnant z is pulmonic, egressive, voiced, oral, tongue blade—alveolar, fricative, we have answered all the above questions with reference to this consonant and given a concise phonetic label. The table given on page 31 'Table of the Principal English Sounds' (reproduced from Daniel Jone's *An English Pronouncing Dictionary* can help in labelling English consonants.

		LABIAL		DENTAL	AL-VEO-LAR	POST-ALVE-OLAR	PALATO-ALVEO-LAR	PALATAL	VELAR	GLOT-TAL
		Bi-labial	Labio-Dental							
CONSONANTS	Plosive	p b			t d				k g	ʔ
	Affricate						tʃ dʒ			
	Nasal	m	ɱ		n				ŋ	
	Lateral				l					
	Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z		ʒ		x	h
	Semi-vowel	w						j	(w)	
VOWELS								Front Central	Back	
	Close	(ʉ) (u)						i: ɪ	u: ʊ	
	Half-close	(o)						e	o	
	Half-open	(ɔ:)						ɛ	ʌ ɔ:	
	Open	(ɔ)						æ a Front	ɔ ɑ Back	

The secondary articulations of sounds having two places of articulation are shown by the symbols in ( ).

The chart given above shows the place of articulation, the manner of articulation and presence or absence of voice [B used for breath and V for voice] in the articulation of the consonantal sounds in English. We shall now classify them according to the place of articulation and the manner of articulation.

PLACE OF ARTICULATION : In bilabial the two lips are the primary articulators and the sounds produced are p, b and m, the last being nasal. In labio-dental the lower lip articulates with the upper teeth producing f,v. In dental sounds the tongue lip and rims articulate with the upper teeth producing (θ,ð). In alveolar the blade or tip and blade of the tongue articulates with the alveolar ridge, producing t, d, l, n, s, z. In post-alveolar the tip and the rims of the tongue articulate with the rear part of the alveolar ridge producing (ɹ, tɹ, dɹ). In retroflex the tip of the tongue curls back to articulate with the part of hard palate immediately behind the alveolar ridge as in the retracted ɹ of South West British and American English. In palato-alveolar the blade or tip of the tongue articulates with the alveolar ridge accompanied by a raising of the front of the tongue towards the hard palate as in ʃ,θ, ʒ. In palatal the front of tongue articulates with the hard palate as in j or a very advanced type of k, g . In velar sounds the back of the tongue articulates with the soft palate resulting in k, g ŋ . In uvular the back of the tongue articulates with uvula producing B. In glottal sounds there is an obstruction or a narrowing causing friction but there is no vibration of the vocal cords as in h.

MANNER OF ARTICULATION :— These include :—

i. complete closure :

a. Plosive : An obstruction made by the vocal organs at some point in the vocal tract results in a complete closure, behind which the air pressure builds up and is released explosively as in the sounds p, b, t, d, k, g , ?. These sounds are also called stop consonants.

b. Affricate : The production of these involves a complete closure at some point in the mouth behind which the air pressure builds up and the slow separation of the organs so that friction is a characteristic second element of the sound. Examples are tʃ , dʒ , tr, dr.

c. Nasal : This involves a complete closure at some point in the mouth accompanied by the lowering of the soft palate which allows the air stream to escape through the nose. These sounds are continuants and vowel-like in the voiced form having no noise component. The English nasals are [m,n, ŋ]

ii. Intermittent closure :

a. Roll : This involves a series of rapid intermittent closures or taps made by the tongue tip against the firm surface of the alveolar ridge or the uvula against the back of the tongue as in r, R—

b. Flap : This is a single tap of the tongue tip against the teeth ridge as in (f)

iii. Partial closure :

Lateral—When a partial closure is effected at some point in the mouth and the air stream is allowed to escape on both sides of the contact, lateral sounds are produced. They may be continuant and non-fricative and therefore vowel-like as in (l) or they may be accompanied by a little friction [!] or considerable friction (ɮ).

iv. Narrowing :

Fricative :—This involves to vocal organs coming so close together that the air stream passes through them with friction as in f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ . x, h. We can have a purely bilabial fricative like (β) or a labio velar sound like (ʍ) where the friction occurring between rounded lips is accompanied by modification of the mouth cavity effected by raising the back of the tongue towards the velum.

The semi vowels (w, j) are usually classed with consonants on functional grounds but according to phonetic description they are more properly treated as vowel glides.

Frictionless continuants like the common variety of the southern British (ɹ) having neither the closure nor noise component characteristic of consonant and are however having the functional status of consonants and are classed accordingly.

In describing and classifying vowel sounds we are concerned with a glottal tone modified by the action of the upper resonators of the mouth, the pharyngeal and nasal cavities. The movable organs shaping these resonators are the soft palate, lips and tongue. A description and classification of vowel sounds must therefore take note of :

i. The position of the soft palate. This will be raised for oral vowels, and lowered for nasalized vowels.

ii. The degrees of spreading or rounding in the aperture formed by the lips.

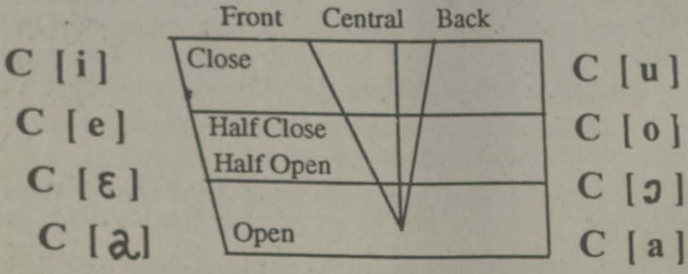
iii. The part of the tongue which is raised and the degree of raising. Of these three factors only the lip position can be seen.

We can only judge the action of soft palate by the presence or absence of nasality in the sound produced. The movement of the tongue which mainly determines the shape of the mouth and pharyngeal cavities, being very minute, cannot be precisely assessed by simple means. We can

only say that some vowel sounds are articulated with the raising of the front part of the tongue, while in others there is a typical hump at the back and these are confirmed by X-ray photography. The most satisfactory system of description of the vowels is provided by Daniel Jones' cardinal system. In this system light cardinal vowels have been established on a scale by beginning with two vowel qualities in which the tongue is in easily felt positions. First the front of the tongue was raised as near to the hard palate as possible without producing friction. In this position vowel number (i) on the cardinal scale was fixed. Similarly with the whole tongue lying as low as possible in the mouth and with very slight raising at the extreme back, the vowel 'a' which is number 5 on the cardinal scale was fixed. Starting from the (i) position the front of tongue was lowered gradually, the lips being spread or neutral, and the soft palate raised. Halting the lowering at three equidistant points three different vowel qualities were noted. They are e, ɛ , a. Proceeding in the same way, the vowel qualities depending on the height of the back of the tongue beginning from the lowest position are ascertained. Thus the vowels (a, e, o) and u are established at equidistant positions on the cardinal scale. While the back of the tongue is raised from the (a) position, the lips are changed progressively from a wide open shape to a closely rounded one and the soft palate remains raised. Thus a scale of eight primary cardinal vowels has been set up. They are :—

1.	i	5	*a*
2.	e	6.	ɔ
3.	ɛ	7.	o
4.	a	8.	u

The vowels occurring in any language can be described by relating them to the cardinal vowel scale which is indicated in the figure below:



It is easy to indicate vowel qualities in any language by referring to a standard, invariable scale like the cardinal vowel scale. We can, for instance, speak of a vowel quality between cardinal vowel 6 and 7 or between 2 and 3. The points on the cardinal scale indicate the degrees to

tongue raising, the (i-u) level being known as the close region, the (e.o) level as the half close one, the [ɛ ɔ] level as the half open one and the (a-*a*) level as the open one. Where the main raising is made by the front of the tongue we have front vowels while back vowels are produced by the raising of the back of the tongue and central vowels by the raising of the centre of tongue towards the roof of the mouth.

A general phonetic assessment of the qualities of English vowels in terms of the cardinal values is given below :

Short vowels	Phonetic symbol	Quality	Illustrating words
	i	Retracted, raised (e)	City, bid
	ɔ	Open, lip rounded (a)	cod, don
	e	Between (e) and (ɛ)	bed, met
	æ	Between (ɛ) and (a)	had, sat
		Advanced, raised (o)	hood
		Centralised raised (a)	bud, cut
		Central vowel	accept, sitter
Long vowels			
	i:	Lowered i or (Ii)	pea, bead
	u:	Lowered u or (uw)	food, do
	a:	Fronted (a)	bard, car
	ɔ:	Raised (ɔ)	paw, board
	3:	Midcent	purr, bird.

English also employs long dipthongal glides to (i) and (u) and (ɔ) with prominent first element as in :—

ei—pay	,	ai—	pie
oi—coin	,	ui—	ruin
ou—low	,	(au)—	bowed
iə —peer, beard	,	(ɛə)—	pair, bare
ɔə—soar	,	ue—.	pair, moored.

All the vowels and consonants which are now heard in Standard English pronunciation have not been the same throughout the history of the language. On the other hand pronunciation has been changing gradually from old English to modern English and the process of change is still continuing. So when we speak about the speech sounds of English we are not speaking about something permanently fixed but are only describing speech sounds as they are heard in present day English.

Q. 9. What is sound change? How has it affected the English language?

Ans. To understand sound-change which is a common feature of all languages, we must remember that language is the expression of our thoughts and emotions by means of sounds produced by the activities of

our vocal organs. The bodily movements by which the sounds of speech are produced, like all other human activities, are quite capable of being altered or are likely to be altered from time to time and from individual to individual, though not consciously. When we remember that the slightest change in our manner of using the vocal organs can result in considerable alteration in the quality of the speech sound produced, it does not surprise us that the pronunciation of the sound of any language should change from person to person and from time to time. To quote H. C.Wyld, "The drama of the development of language takes place, so to speak, upon the lips and in the minds of living human beings and not in books or written documents." This naturally implies that any language will continue to change in pronunciation so long as it continues to be spoken, and that its sounds will not be uttered exactly alike by all speakers at any given time. The language which has been spoken in England 'since the day of the Anglo Saxons' settling down in the country has been gradually undergoing changes in its pronunciation during the period of its development from old English period to the present day.

These changes in pronunciation, however, have been slow, gradual and unconscious. Every individual, in learning to speak, tries to imitate the sound he hears in the speech of those around him. He may not always succeed fully in carrying out the movement of his vocal organs so carefully as to produce the exact sound he has in mind. He may occasionally vary the movements of his vocal organs slightly so as to make them different, from what he had intended to produce. When the difference in pronunciation is very, very slight it will not be perceived by him or his hearers, and he will not be conscious of having diverged from the correct speech. But if this process of differentiation continues unchecked over a long period or if this tendency to variation in pronunciation is shared by a whole group of people, it gradually becomes more and more perceptible and ultimately, in the pronunciation of this person or persons, one sound becomes replaced by another. This continuous and inevitable process of change in the pronunciation of language is particularly evident in the earlier stages in the development of English. The reason for this is that in those days there was no nationwide influence like compulsory education for children or any agency like the B.B.C. with its tacit imposition of an accepted standard of speech at present.

Even today we can find examples of change in pronunciation in the speech of the younger generation, as in the centralization of the first element in the diphthong which is heard in 'Home' so as to result in (u) instead of (ou) still heard in the pronunciation of older people. Similarly in words like off, cloth etc. (   ) is slowly being replaced by (o). In the absence of any nationwide influence imposing an accepted standard of speech or giving it wide currency like the B.B.C., there were more rapid and drastic changes in pronunciation in the former stages in development of English. Hence a passage of Old English was quite unintelligible to

speakers of English in Chaucer's time and Chaucer's English, when read aloud, sounds quite strange to modern speakers inspite of many similarities in spelling.

Between Old English and Modern English many and varied changes in pronunciation have taken place. One and the same old English sound, occurring in different conditions in the words of the language has developed into different sounds in Modern English. In other words we have many divergent developments of old English sounds. Also different old English sounds have become levelled under one pronunciation or undergone confluent development. Again in some unstressed positions, especially at the end of a word, a sound, after being indistinctly pronounced at first, has gradually dropped off and the word has become often reduced in length by one syllable.

According to the conditions in which sound-changes take place, they can be brought under two broad divisions namely isolative internal changes and combinative internal changes. The first of these refers to independent changes affecting any given sound in all its occurrences. These are to be distinguished from combinatjve changes which take place only when a sound occurs in certain given conditions. The change of the vowel (u) in O.E. hu:s to modern English (aut) as in house is an example of an isolative change because it is unaffected by the conditions in which the sound occurs. So also is the change of O.E. *a* :) as in stan to (ou) in modern English stone.

In what are known as the irregular plurals among English nouns we find a typical example of combinative changes. The presence of the (i) in the last syllable of O.E. fotiz resulted in the fronting of the O.E. (o) in the preceding syllable, so that the word became 'fet' with the final (iz) dropped of 8. This has given rise to the modern word 'feet' with a front vowel replacing the back vowel of the singular form foot. This change known as i-mutation has been responsible for the difference between the novel sounds in the singular and plural forms of the irregular plurals. (Man-men, mouse-mice, tooth-teeth etc.)

Besides independent and dependent internal sound-changes mentioned above, there are other sound-changes which are external to the main line of evolution. For instance it was fashionable in Elizabethan times to pronounce servant, clerk etc. with an (*ɶr*) or (*ar*) instead of the regular (ɛr) sound. Most of these words excepting clerk and Derby have reverted to the normal development of the middle English (ɛ *r*) to modern English (e:). The terminationing pronounced earlier as—in is now retained only in vulgar speech or as a kind of affectation.

In addition to changes in the quality of sounds, there have been changes in quality and accentual pattern. The vowels in path, half, pass, were pronounced short till some three hundred years ago, but have all become lengthened in modern English. At the same time the vowels in book, good, breath, death were all pronounced earlier as long vowels though

they are relatively short now. Changes in pronunciation have also arisen in French loan words from change of accent. Words like 'village' and 'necessary' retained a stress accent accompanied by length on the penultimate syllable in middle English. Now the accent has become Anglicised resulting in the qualitative changes which weak accent involves. Compare middle English [Vi'la : dɛ [n ɛ s ɛsa:ri'] with modern English,'vilid ɛ , nes ə ri.

While studying changes in pronunciation between O. E. and modern English we notice that the English vowels have undergone more striking changes than the consonants. The reason for this is that consonantal articulation involving an approximation of organs which can be felt, is more easily identified and more exactly transmitted from one generation to another. The few consorrantal changes from O. E. to modern English can easily be explained and accounted for, giving the approximate period of change. These include the substitution of the O. E. palatal plosives by the affricates in modern English as in church, bridge and the loss of the post vocalic (x,c) in brought, right etc. and the addition of an initial h in words of French origin like herb, homage etc.

A change in vowel quality can result from very slight changes in the position of the vocal organs like the tongue or the lips without the speaker becoming aware of any such change. There will be a series of imperceptible gradations in the articulation of a vowel before an appreciable quality change is evident or can be expressed phonetically. It is very difficult to assess the rate and route of change in the case of those internal independent vowel changes. Though the series of vowel changes indicated by the term the Great Vowel Shift mostly took place gradually during the period between Chaucer and Shakespeare, we do not know exactly how and exactly when each change was completed. The homophones 'meet' and 'meat' had different vowels in Chaucer. The vowel in 'meet' had become i: by 1500 and probably the vowel in 'meat' first became closed to (e:) and later fell in with the (i:) the vowel in 'meet'. We also know that the modern (ai) in time has resulted from the i: of Chaucer's time through progressive, widening depthongization, though the stages of development cannot be precisely dated. Generally at any time in history there are likely to be a number of different, co-existent, forms of vowel pronunciation of vowel phonemes, not only as between regions but also between generations and social groups. For example in Modern English the diphthong in 'home' is pronounced as [ou] by older people while the younger pronounce it as (ou). Already the latter pronunciation is gaining ground at the expense of the former, In the words of A. C. Gimson "the speech of any community is seen to reflect the pronunciation of the previous century and to anticipate that of the next." This has been happening in English all through its history.

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Q. 10. Write an essay on the position of English on the Indo-Germanic Family of Languages.

Or

Show how English is either closely or distantly related to all other languages of Europe and most of the languages of Western Asia.

Ans. An Englishman who compares his language with German, Dutch or the Scandinavian languages, will be impressed by the fact that these languages have many features in common with his own, both in vocabulary and accidence. On the basis of these resemblances, he is able to conclude that the English, German, Dutch and the Scandinavian languages represent the varied forms into which a single earlier language has been differentiated by divergent development when the original speech community using that language become broken up into new and smaller communities, having no close contacts with one another. By a similar comparison of another group of languages such as French, Spanish, Portuguese and Italian one can easily understand that they all go back to a common ancestor which was a form of Latin. This latter group is usually known as the Romance languages while the former group, including English, German, Dutch etc. are known as the Germanic languages. It is seen that languages within the Germanic group are closely related to each other, just as languages within the Romance group are closely related to each other. At the same time it is also clear that there is a more distant kinship between the languages of the Germanic group and those of the Romance group. A comparative study of other language-groups among those which are spoken at present in the countries of Europe and Western Asia points to a common ancestor for all these languages, and to this original speech of the Indo-European peoples the name Indo-European or Indo-Germanic has been given. This Indo-European happens to be one of the many large groups or language-families which are known to exist in the world today.

When we say that Indo-European (see Appendix 'A') is the common ancestor of related language groups like the Germanic or the Latin, we mean that it is the earliest form of the language which we can reconstruct by a comparative study of all the languages which are known to have been descended from it. This should not lead us to suppose that there was no other form of the Indo-European language earlier to the one we thus reconstruct or that this language which we arrive at through this comparative study of its descendants was more static than any other

spoken language. In keeping with the true nature of all languages, the Indo-European language also must have been changing and developing throughout its history. What we are attempting to study with the help of available data is the story of this language during the period between 3000 B.C. and 2000 B.C. It certainly must have had a pre-history, (and in all probability an interesting one), but at present we have no means of knowing the details of the history. All that we know so far is that the original community speaking the Indo-European language broke up into smaller communities between 3000 B.C. and 2000 B.C. and that these originally nomadic people wandered off in different directions, with their sheep and cattle in search of fresh fields and new pastures. The original home of these speakers of Indo-European is now believed to have been somewhere near the centre of the area occupied by the speakers of languages descended from it, though it had earlier been supposed to be on its eastern fringe where ancient Sanskrit was spoken. The cumulative evidence of the common vocabulary of the Indo-European languages and other sources of information lead us to believe that the original home was an inland one and a cold one where animals like the wolf, the horse and the bear and trees like the pine had existed. As the steppes of South Western Russia answer to the above details, it is supposed to have been the original home of the Indo-European community before it split up into smaller communities and went of in search of new homes.

THEORIES OF THE ORIGIN OF VARIOUS INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES :

When the new communities thus formed by the splitting up of the original speech community could no longer remain in close and intimate contact with one another their language could no longer remain homogeneous or develop on identical lines. According to the speech-habits prevailing among the members of each of the newly-formed communities the speech of each community gradually becomes differentiated from that of each of the other communities. For a time they must have been still able to understand one another's speech while feeling that the language of each was spoken by the other "with a difference". But after hundreds of years, what first had been differentiated into dialects of the same original language, became developed into new languages, the speakers of which could no longer understand one another. The problem of how the Indo-European languages thus became divided in the various languages which are known to have been developed out of it, has aroused much discussion. The 'pedigree theory' advanced by August Schleicher in 1866 is the oldest on the subject. According to him the differences which exist among the languages of the Indo-European family are the result of a series of successive bifurcations which have been represented by means of a genealogical tree. Inspite of the fact that his theory is no longer generally accepted, it has had a great influence on the terminology used by linguisticians. A group of related languages is usually referred to as a family of languages and one language is often

spoken of as being descended from another. A serious objection to Schleicher's theory is that he has not taken into account the resemblances, like those which have been noted, between Celtic and Germanic which upset his system of classification.

The 'wave theory' propounded by Johannes Schmidt in 1872 tries to account for such resemblances cannot be explained by the 'pedigree theory' of Schleicher. Schmidt assumed an original language spreading over a wide area and resulting in the occurrence of dialectal differences. These differences, developed among sections of the community which has originally spoken a homogenous language, gradually led to the formation of distinct languages. The dialect areas of Indo-European must have overlapped, resulting in the differences which are common to some language of this family but are not shared by all. Though this theory cannot adequately explain all the problems relating to the development of the Indo-European languages from a common ancestor, it serves as a working hypothesis which can be modified in the light of supplementary theories. It must be remembered that while dealing with theories about the splitting up of Indo-European, we may be tempted to oversimplify the problems involved.

CLASSIFICATION OF INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES :

Whatever the way in which the differences among the Indo-European language arose, it is possible to have them classified on the basis of these differences. By taking into consideration the linguistic features which are common to some of them, but are not shared by all, we can have two broad divisions known as the 'centum' languages and the 'satem' languages. This division is based on the development of the Indo-European palatal plosives, which in some of the languages of this family feel in with the velar plosives while in some others they became alveolar fricatives. The former development is a general characteristic of the western Indo-European languages while the latter development is a feature of the eastern languages. The word meaning 'hundred' occurs ir most Indo-European languages and the initial consonant of the word in the parent language was affected by the changes mentioned above. The eastern and western divisions of the Indo-European family have come to be known as the 'satem' and the 'centum' branches respectively according to the form of the word meaning hundred in Avestan and Latin which have been treated as representative of the eastern and western branches. On the basis of their common features the Indo-European languages have been generally divided into eight or nine groups. Some historians of language treat the Indian and Iranian branches as descended from a common ancestor called Indo-Iranian while others consider them as two separate branches like Armenian, Albanian, Balto-Slavonic, Hellenic, Italic, Celtic and Germanic. According to the former class of historians Indo-European is thus seen to have eight branches while according to the latter there are nine branches. We cannot consider either

classification as final or cent percent correct because recently valuable records relating to some of the dead Indo-European languages have been unearthed and we are made to wonder how many more branches of Indo-European have already disappeared totally remain to be discovered. In the present century much interest in the dead branches of Indo-European has been aroused by the discovery of inscriptions and manuscripts in two dead languages, namely Hittite and Tocharian. Both these languages have close affinities with the Indo-European language. A study of the inscriptions on clay tablets discovered in the ancient capital of the Hittites in Asia Minor has led historians of language to wonder whether Indo-European was a less homogeneous language than has generally been believed. In Tocharian we have the name given to two languages or dialects used in certain manuscripts, discovered in Eastern Turkestan and belonging to the first seven centuries of the Christian era. The most significant discovery about Tocharian is that it is a language belonging to the 'certum' group of the Indo-European family, preserved in an area where one should excpect to find a 'satem' language, or a language, outside the Indo-European family.

Leaving aside Hittite and Tocharian and other branches of Indo-European which might have totally disappeared or are yet to be discovered, our knowledge of the language is based on the following branches :

Indian :—The oldest books written in languages belonging to this group are the Vedas or sacred books of the Hindus which are believed to have been written about 1000 B. C. Vedic Sanskrit or the language of the Vedas is to be distinguished from classical Sanskrit a later form of the language which was given fixed literary form by Indian grammarians in the 4th century B. C. Though Sanskrit has always been studied as a learned literary language in India, it has long ceased to be spoken. However, certain spoken dialects of ancient Sanskrit, known as Prakrits have given rise to the modern Indian languages like Hindi, Punjabi and Bengali. The Romany or Gypsy languages are also believed to have been developed from a dialect of north western or central India and carried to Persia by the nomadic tribes.

Iranian :—The earliest of this group belong to Avestan and Old Persian Avestan as preserved in the Avesta, the sacred writings of the Zoroastrians dating back to 1000 B. C. Old Persian which is preserved in some rock inscriptions recording the achievements of Darius and Xerxes has given rise to Middle Iranian or Pehlvi from which modern Persian is descended. Kurdish and Afghan are other modern languages belonging to the Iranian group.

Armenian :—Records preserved from the fifth century A. D., the earliest of which is translation of the Bible, are representative of this branch of Indo-European. The large admixture of loan words from a neighbouring language like Iranian has led some people to think that the Armenian

language belongs to the Iranian group. But distinctive features like a consonant shifting comparable to that of the Germanic branch, require that Armenian should be treated as a separate group.

Albanian is a branch of Indo-European which, except for a few words, is recorded only from the seventeenth century A. D. Like Armenian it also contains a large proportion of loan words from neighbouring languages.

Balto Slavonic :—The two groups, Baltic and Slavonic which have many features in common, are sub-divisions of the Balto-Slavonic branch of Indo-European. Lithuanian and Lettish are derived from Baltic while the Slavonic branch has given rise to Russian, Czech, Polish, Serbo, Coation etc. Lithuanian is of special importance to students of Indo-European because this conservative descendant is preserved in almost all other branches. The earliest records in Slavonic known as Church Slavonic or old Bulgarian are translations of parts of the Bible made in the 9th century A.D. Hellenic is the branch of Indo-European which has given rise to the Greek dialects spoken on the mainland of Greece, in the islands of the Aegean Sea, and in Asia Minor. Recent discoveries of clay tablets at Pylos have revealed to us records in this language which go back to the thirteenth century B. C. The most important among the dialects of the language was Attic, the dialect of Athena, which on account of the cultural and political supremacy of the city, became the basis of a common literary language, and this soon superseded the other dialects, becoming the general language of the eastern Mediterranean. From this the dialects of modern Greece are descended.

Italic :—From sixth century B. C. we have evidence of some European languages of this group being spoken along with non-Indo-European languages like, Etruscan, Oscan and Umbrian in Italy. Latin, the language of Rome, gradually drove out the other languages on account of the political supremacy of Rome. With the growth of the Roman empire Latin spread to many parts of Europe and gave rise to the Romance languages like French, Provencal, Italian, Spanish, Catalan, Portuguese and Rumanian. All these were descended from a spoken form of Latin or Vulgar Latin. Subsequent conquests and colonizations of the speakers of the Romance languages have carried them to many countries away from the original homes. Portuguese is now spoken in Brazil, Spanish in most part of South America, and French in many parts of the world.

Celtic is a branch of Indo-European which was spoken in many parts of Western Europe early in the Christian era though now it is confined to some small communities of people in France and the British Isles. On the basis of their treatment of the Indo-European labio-velar consonants, the Celtic languages are divided into two groups, the p group or the Britonic group and the q group or the Goedeiic group. In the former the consonants in question became labials and in the later they became velar consonants. (Compare the first consonants in Welsh 'sedwar' with Old

Irish Cethir. The Brittonic group is now represented by Breton and Welsh Cornish having passed out of use in the eighteenth century. The Goedelic group has given rise to Irish, Scots, Gaelic and Manx.

Germanic is the term used generally to denote the group of Indo-European to which English and German belong. Languages of this group are distinguished from either Indo-European by certain characteristic features. The first of these is that the chief accent of a word in Germanic became fixed on the root syllable of each word except in verbs containing separate prefixes and in some nouns and verbs derived from nouns while in Indo-European the chief accent could sometimes fall on a suffix or ending and thus its position was variable. Another feature of Germanic is that certain consonants of Indo-European have undergone regular shifting in Germanic as illustrated by the First consonants shift or Grimm's Law while this shifting has not taken place in other branches of the parent languages. Germanic also simplified its verbal system, retaining only the present and the past tenses, so that languages of this group have had to develop new ways of expressing differences of tense. Germanic languages are further characterised by the rise of a new class of verbs known as the weak verbs in which the past tense is formed by the use of a suffix with a dental or alveolar consonant.

BRANCHES OF GERMANIC :

Before the beginning of the Christian era common Germanic is believed to have split up into three main branches, East Germanic, West Germanic and North Germanic. The only East Germanic language which has left behind substantial records is Gothic, in which one Bishop Wulflas had translated the Bible in the 4th century. This translation is now preserved in Uppsala and remains as our sole basis for understanding the features of East Germanic.

NORTH GERMANIC GROUP :

The North Germanic group is preserved in the languages of the Scandinavian countries and we have early records of this branch surviving in the runic inscriptions dating from the third or fourth century A. D. North Germanic was split up into West Norse and East Norse, the former being represented by Icelandic and the latter by Danish and Swedish. The Scandinavian languages were spoken over a large part of English as a result of the Danish invasions and they have left their mark on the English language in many loan-words.

WEST GERMANIC GROUP :

The West Germanic group can be divided into three branches including (1) High German, (2) Low German and Low Franconian, and (3) Anglo Frisian. High German, as distinct from other West Germanic languages, is characterised by a distinctive development of its consonant system. It is now the official language of Germany, Austria and parts of Switzerland.

Low German has given rise to the many dialects of North Germany, while Low Franconian has developed into the Dutch and Flemish languages. English and Frisian, derived from Anglo-Frisian, have much in common. With the decline of the power of the Frisians who had at one time been a great seafaring people, their language has been reduced to the position of a dialect spoken and written in Friesland, (now a province, of the Netherland), along the Shleswig coast and in the neighbouring islands. The history of the English language began with the settling down of the Germanic tribes viz. the Angels, Saxons and Jutes in Britain. The West Germanic dialects spoken by these tribes have been the basis of the English language of today. The long and interesting history of the language is usually divided for purposes of detailed study, into three periods, the Old English period (extending from the time of the earliest surviving documents of the 8th century to the end of the eleventh century), the Middle English period (extending from the twelfth to the middle of the fifteenth century) and the Modern English period (extending from the end of the fifteenth century to the present day).

INDO-EUROPEAN AS ANCESTOR OF ENGLISH :

The Indo-European is the original ancestor of English is indicated by two outstanding characteristics. These are its structure and its vocabulary. Both of these point to the Indo-European ancestors of the English language. All the languages descended from Indo-European lend themselves in structure to the description of forms which the ancient Greeks have named "the parts of speech". The Indo-European parent language was a fully-inflected one with all the word endings indicating grammatical forms. But some of them like English have later lost the inflectional endings though others like Russian and German have retained them. But all the Indo-European languages alike whether they are "Synthetic" with full inflections, or "analytic" with few inflections or none, have retained their traditional structure. Their forms readily fall into the parts of speech. In this respect the Indo-European languages are different from languages like Chinese, Hungarian and many of the languages of central Asia, which have their forms, consisting not of parts of speech, but of mono-syllabic roots which can be built up with prefixes and suffixes, into clauses or phrase complexes.

COMMON VOCABULARY OF INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES :

As for vocabulary we find a great deal in common among the Indo-European languages. And this common basis of vocabulary serves to distinguish them from languages belonging to other families. The words expressing closest family relationships and the names of elementary domestic materials and the most familiar animals are seen to be the same for all Indo-European languages, when the existing forms of these are traced back to their origin. It is interesting to compare, for instance,

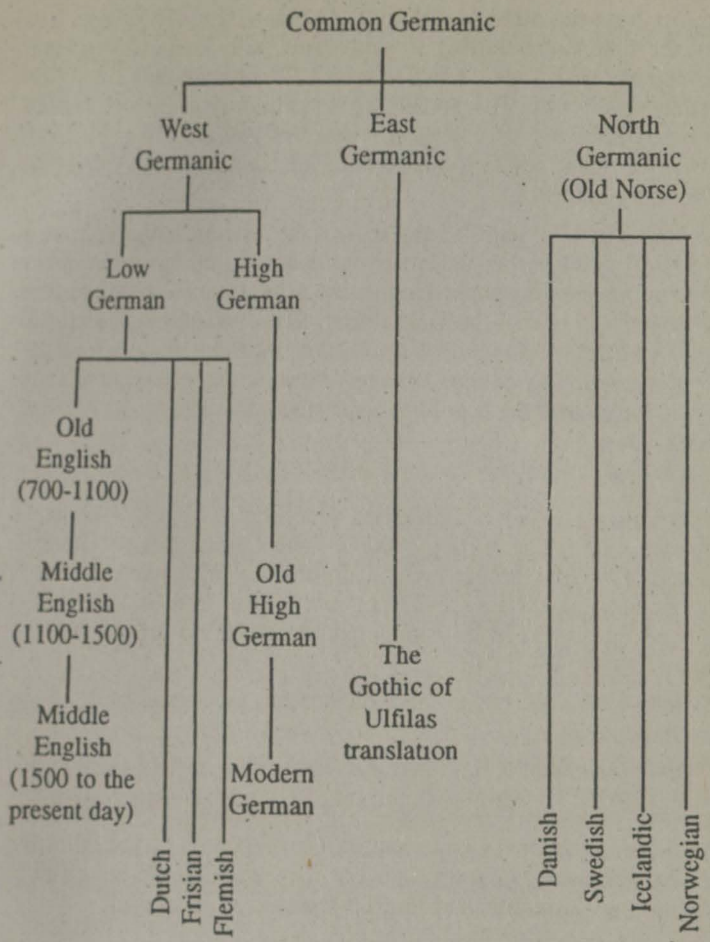
the following words in English, Latin and Sanskrit.

English	Latin	Sanskrit
father	pater	pita
mother	mater	mata
brother	frater	bhrata

Thus English which owes its origin to its immediate ancestor Germanic, has for its first ancestor the parent Indo-European, of which Germanic is one of the eight main branches. As such, the English language shares its Indo-Europeanness in structure and vocabulary with all other languages of Europe and most of the languages of Western Asia including the Northern part of India. Thus, it is either closely or distantly related to all other languages of Europe and most of the languages of Western Asia.

Q. 11. Give an account of the Germanic family of languages and show how English is related to the other Germanic languages.

Ans. The Indo-Germanic languages spoken by the nomadic tribes who inhabited the southern steppes of Russia between B.C. 3500—B.C. 3000 was gradually differentiated into eight branches as the speakers spread East and West in search of new homes for themselves and new pastures for their sheep and cattle. The four Western branches of Indo-Germanic are Greek, Latin, Celtic, and Germanic. Teutonic is another name by which the Germanic languages are known. The Germanic or Teutonic language was spoken by the Indo-Germanic tribes who had settled down in the regions which comprise modern Germany, Scandinavia, Holland, the Flemish parts of Belgium and Great Britain. The primitive form of this Teutonic or Common Germanic can only be reconstructed by working back from the languages which are known to have been descended from it. During the centuries immediately preceding the beginning of the Christian era, the users of Primitive or Common Germanic are believed to have migrated from their homes in Northern Europe into western and central Europe. As a result of this, Primitive Germanic had become differentiated into three distinct groups of languages. The Northern group is represented by the Scandinavian languages and we have records of them from the fourth century A.D. The common name for these languages till the end of the Middle Ages was old Norse. Swedish, Danish, Norvegian and Icelandic are the languages descended from old Norse. The Eastern group is represented by the Gothic tongue in which we have translation of the Bible made at the end of the fourth century by one Bishop Ulfilas. The Western group includes the languages of Germany, Holland, Friese-land, Flanders, Belgium and England with historical records, which in the case of England date back to the seventh century A.D. The relationship between English and the other Germanic languages can be clearly understood from the following diagram :



The languages belonging to the Germanic branch are distinguished from the seven other branches of the great Indo-Germanic family by three important characteristics. These are :—

1. The Great consonant shift,
2. The verbal system,
3. The Teutonic accent.

These characteristics are all clearly noticeable in the earlier stage of the history of the Germanic languages. Traces of them are to be found even today in all the languages of the Germanic family.

The Great Consonant Shift, very often referred to as Grimm's Law, is one of the most characteristic features distinguishing the Germanic

languages from the other branches of the Indo-Germanic family. It is named the first sound-shifting so as to distinguish it from the special sound-shifting which took place later in Old High German only. The exact date at which the First sound shifting took place, cannot be clearly ascertained now, but it is generally believed to have taken place in Primitive Germanic before it was differentiated into the Eastern, Western and Northern branches.

Erasmus Rask, a Danish scholar, was the first man to point out a regular shifting of certain Indo-Germanic consonants to certain other consonants in the Germanic languages. After examining words like Sanskrit 'pita' (English father), skt. 'bhrata' (English brother), skt. 'kwa' (English who), Rask came to the conclusion that these changes were the result of a certain law of sound change. Because Jacob Grimm was the man who formulated the law it has been called after him by the name of Grimm's Law.

GRIMM'S LAW :

According to this law certain series of consonants in Indo-Germanic were subject to regular shifting in the Germanic languages. As Grimm's statement of the law did not include all the Indo-Germanic consonants which underwent shifting in Germanic, it was later modified and completed by others. In its completed and modified form it may be stated as follows :—

1. Indo-Germanic bh, dh and gh, became Germanic b, d, and g, respectively.
2. Indo-Germanic b, d, g, became Germanic p, t, k, respectively.
3. Indo-Germanic p, t, k, became Germanic f, th, h, respectively.

The first part of Great Consonant Shift is illustrated by the following examples. (In these examples, Sanskrit, Greek and Latin are taken to represent Indo-Germanic, and English represents Germanic).

Skt. bhu becomes English be
Skt. madhya becomes English middle
Skt. stigh becomes Old English stige

The second part of the law is illustrated by the following examples :

Latin 'Lubricus'	becomes	English 'slippery'
Skt. 'Syau'	becomes	English 'sweet'
Skt. [1]'Janu'	becomes	English 'knee'

The third part of the law is seen operating in the following examples:—

Skt. 'pita'	becomes	English 'father'
Skt. dant	becomes	English 'tooth'
Greek kleptes	becomes	Old English hliftus

1. Skt. J is from Indo-Germanic g.

Grimm's Law is of great importance to the student of Germanic philology because it enables him to distinguish between a word of Germanic and a word of non-Germanic origin. As a result of this law many of the Indo-Germanic words were altered considerably, and sometimes beyond recognition, in the Germanic languages. However, at the time of the formulation of Grimm's Law it was seen that there were some apparent exceptions to the law in the consonants relating to the third part of the law. Here it was seen that in some words, the Indo-Germanic p, t, k, instead of being represented in Germanic by the corresponding voiceless open sounds, were represented by the voiced stop sounds. In other words, Indo Germanic p, t, k, instead of being represented in Germanic by f, th, and h were first voiced and then stopped to b, d, g, respectively. This change had puzzled scholars greatly. It is universally admitted that there can be no exceptions to the law of sound changes. The mystery was solved forty years after the formulation of Grimm's Law by a disciple of Grimm, named Karl Verner. He found out that the apparently unaccountable voicing of the Germanic consonants in question, was the result of the change in the position of the Indo-Germanic accent, which in some cases preceded the consonant (when Grimm's Law operated) and in some others followed the consonant by being on the succeeding syllable. In the latter case we have the operation of Verner's Law. It is seen that in the conjugation of many strong verbs in Old English, the first two stems illustrate Grimm's law while the last two stems illustrate Verner's Law, because in the first two the Indo-Germanic accent preceded the consonant and in the last two it followed the consonant, by being on the last syllable. Thus in the four stems of the Old English verb 'weorthan', (weorthan, wearth, wurdon, worden) the first two illustrate Grimm's Law and the last two illustrate Verner's Law.

GERMANIC AND OTHER BRANCHES OF INDO-GERMANIC :

The verbal system of the Germanic languages is different from those of the other Indo-Germanic languages in many ways. Germanic verbs have been divided by Grimm into two classes, on the basis of their manner of 'indicating' tense changes. One class of verbs is called strong verbs and these indicate their tense by change of vowel following a regular series as in rise, rose, risen, or write, wrote, written, or drive, drove, driven. This series of vowel variation in relation to change of tense were called Ablaut series by Grimm. These Ablaut series are known in English as vowel gradations. A characteristic feature of Germanic is that it uses vowel gradations of this kind to show regularly the change of tense in verbs. Other Indo-Germanic languages make use of this device much less frequently. The second class of verbs in Germanic called weak verbs are secondary of derivative verbs derived from other words, (as 'to love' from the noun love). They show their tense change, not by regular vowel-gradation, but by adding a denial suffix like d, ed or t to the verbs as in love-loved. These distinctions between strong and weak verbs can no

longer be clearly traced in the languages descended from Common Germanic because of the sound changes which have occurred in the course of their history. While Indo-Germanic was characterised by an elaborate system of verb-conjugations, dealing with all the different 'aspects' of an action, the Germanic languages have a simplified verbal system with only two senses, a present and a past. While the present and the past tenses are indicated by the primary forms of the verb, the other tenses are indicated by means of auxiliary verbs and compound tenses. This simplification of the verbal system in Germanic has led to the multiplication of compound tenses and the increased use of auxiliary verbs. It has also provided the language with greater flexibility of expression as well as greater subtlety. There is also the danger of greater possibilities for looseness of construction.

The third characteristic which distinguishes the Germanic languages from other branches of Indo-Germanic is the stress shift of Teutonic accent. In the parent language, Indo-Germanic, the accent was free or variable. That is, it could be on different parts of a word according to context and meaning. In the primitive stage before Germanic was differentiated into its three branches, the Indo-Germanic variable accent had been replaced by a fixed one resting regularly upon a particular syllable in each word. Generally the Germanic accent fell on the root syllable of a word. However in some nouns and adjectives and in verbs derived from either, it fell on the first syllable of the word, whether it was the root or the prefix.

The Teutonic accent has been of far-reaching consequences in the history of the language. It has affected the general character of the language even more than the consonant shift has done. With the fixing of the stress on the first syllable, the following syllable or syllables gradually become weakened and blurred in utterance. This led to the loss of the unstressed last syllables in course of time and Germanic words became shorter than their Indo-Germanic ancestors. This fixing of the Teutonic accent on the first syllable has been primarily responsible for the gradual decay and ultimate loss of the inflexional endings in Germanic words. The simplification of accidence resulting from the loss of the Old English inflexions which is so marked a feature of the English language is thus seen to be the result of the fixing of the Teutonic accent in Common Germanic.

By a comparative study of the language which are known to have descended from common Germanic, philologists have been able to discover the common characteristics of the Germanic family, which have already been dealt with. If it is proved by a study of any other hitherto unknown language that it possesses these common characteristics of the Germanic family we can unhesitatingly say that it is also a descendent of Common Germanic.

LAWS OF LANGUAGE : 4

Q. 12. Write a short essay on Grimm's Law?

Ans. The Indo-European family of languages from which English is descended, has eight branches including the Eastern ones like Indo-Iranian, Albanian, and Balto-Slavonic and the Western ones like, Greek, Latin, Celtic and Teutonic. It is from the last of these, namely the Teutonic branch that English takes its descent. This Teutonic branch is characterised by certain distinctive features which make the languages like English and German, which are descended from it, to stand out from languages belonging to the other branches of the Indo-Germanic family. These distinguishing qualities of the Teutonic branch are its verbal system, the accent of its words, and the series of sound changes to which the name, the First Sound Shifting has been given. The sound changes involved in the First sound shifting, though originally discovered by a Danish scholar named Rask, were first formulated as a law by one German scholar named Jacob Grimm (1785-1863). The law formulated by Grimm has been named after him and is hence familiarly known to students of the history of English as Grimm's Law.

Though Grimm was the first man to formulate the law, the changes involved in it had been discovered earlier by the Danish scholar Rask (1787-1832). He had discovered certain correspondences between some consonantal sounds occurring in the words of the classical languages like Sanskrit, Latin, and Greek, and those of the Teutonic languages like English and Gothic. Grimm, who studied these correspondences more closely, stated that there is a regular shifting of certain series of Indo-Germanic consonantal sounds in Teutonic. The law as it was originally stated by Grimm, referred only to the sound shifting of the Indo-Germanic Voiceless stop consonants (p), (t), (k) and (kw). It has been stated more completely and systematically as a result of the subsequent investigation of the subject. In its present form Grimm's Law includes the following series of changes.

(A) Indo-European voiced aspirated stop sounds bh, gh, dh, become shifted in Teutonic to the corresponding voiced stop sounds b, d, g.

(B) The Indo-European voiced stop sound, (b), (d), (g), are shifted in Teutonic to the corresponding voiceless sounds p, t, k.

(C) Indo-European voiceless stop sounds (p), (t), (k), (kw), become shifted in Teutonic to the corresponding voiceless open sounds (f), (θ), (h), (hw).

In order to illustrate these sound shiftings we can take words from the classical languages like Sanskrit, Latin and Greek as representative of Indo-European sounds, because the Indo-European consonant-system is

best preserved in these languages. Words from Old English, or Modern English or Gothic may be taken to represent the Teutonic sounds. Thus we have in the following examples a full illustration of the first consonant shifting.

A. (i) Indo-European bh becomes Teutonic b

eg.	Skt, bhrata	,, Mod. Eng. brother
	Skt. bhu	,, Mod. Eng. be
	Skt. bharami	,, Mod. Eng. bear
(ii) Indo-European dh		,, Teutonic d
eg.	Skt. madhya	,, Mod. Eng. Middle
	Skt. rudhira	,, Mod. Eng. red
	Skt. dha	,, Mod. Eng. do
(iii) Indo-European gh		,, Teutonic g
e.g.	Skt. h[1] amsa	,, Mod. Eng. goose
	Skt. stigh	,, Old Eng. stige
		,, (Mod. Eng. stye)
	Skt. nidagha	,, O Germ : dag
		,, (Mod. Germ: tag)
B. (i) Indo-European (b)		,, Teutonic (p)
eg.	Indo-European lubricus	,, Gothic Sliupan
		,, (OE Slupan)
	Latin turba	,, English thorp
	Skt. Kubja	,, English hump
(ii) Indo-European (d)		,, Teutonic (t)
eg.	Latin Cardis	,, Eng. heart
	Skt. dasam	,, Eng. ten
	Skt. svadu	,, Eng. sweet
(iii) Indo-European (g)		,, Teutonic (k)
eg.	Skt. Janu[2]	,, English kniu
		,, (English knee)
	Latin gelu	,, Gothic Kalds
		,, (English cold)
	Skt. jna	,, Mod. English know

C. (i) Indo-European (p) becomes Teutonic (f)

eg.	Skt. pita	,, Eng. father
	Skt.pancha	,, Eng. five
	Greek kleptes	,, O.E. hliftus
(ii) Indo-European 't'		,, Teutonic 'th'
eg.	Skt-pita	,, Eng. father
	Lat. tres	,, English three
	Skt. antara	,, Eng. other
(iii) Indo-European (k)		,, Teutonic (h)
eg.	Skt. Kvą	,, O. E. hwa

1. Skt. 'h' represents Indo-European 'gh'.
2. Sanskrit 'J' is from Indo-European 'g'.

Latin canis	,, Old Eng. hand
Skt. pecu	,, Goth. faihu
	,, Old English feoh
	,, (Mod. Eng. Fee)

Grimm's Law, however, did not operate under certain conditions, when combinative factors were at work to prevent the operation of the Law, for instance if Indo-European (p) or (k) happened to be followed by (t) the (t) remained unchanged so that from the combination (pt) (kt) we have in Teutonic (ft), (ht), (Indo-Germanic) (p) and (k) being changed by the operation of Grimm's Law.

eg.	Greek kleptes becomes	Old Eng. : hliftus
	Gk : Octo	,, Old Eng. : eahta

Also if (p, t, or k) were preceded by an (s) in Indo-European the combinations remained unchanged in Teutonic as in the following examples.

Skt Stigh	becomes	Old Eng. Stige
Latin Scrinium	becomes	Old Eng. Scrin

The causes of the sound shifting involved in Grimm's Law are not clearly known. It is assumed that the sound shifting was the result of the contacts which the Teutonic people had with some non-Germanic population after the segregation of their dialect from the neighbouring dialects of the language. This contact could have occurred through the migration of the Germanic tribes to new territories or from the penetration of a foreign population into Germanic territory. To whatever causes it may be due, the Germanic sound shift which was still occurring as late as the 5th century A.D.:, is the most distinguishing characteristic marking off the Teutonic languages from the languages to which they are related.

After the formulation of Grimm's Law it was found that there were certain apparent exceptions to it. In a pair of words like Latin 'Centum' and English 'hundred' the correspondence between the 'c' (k) and the (h) was according to Grimm's Law, but there was no such correspondence between the (t) of 'centum' and the (d) of 'hundred'. Instead of the (d) in hundred we should have had a (ð) sound according to Grimm's Law. Grimm himself was puzzled by the existence of many pairs of words in which the Indo-European p, t, k, were not represented in Teutonic by the corresponding voiceless open consonants. As sound laws do not admit of exceptions it was evident that the presence of the voiced sound in Teutonic in place of unvoiced sounds was the result of some combinative factors at work. It was left for Karl Verner, a disciple of Grimm, to discover this combinative factor, forty years later.

Q. 13. Explain Verner's Law and show how it is related to Grimm's Law?

Ans. One of the distinguishing qualities that make the Teutonic branch of the Indo-European family to stand out from the seven other branches is the series of sound changes to which the name the First Sound Shifting has been given. These sound changes first discovered by the Danish scholar Rask (1787-1832), were formulated into a law by a German scholar named Jacob Grimm (1785-1863). By a comparative study of Indo-European (as represented by the non-Germanic branches) and the Germanic branch, Grimm arrived at the conclusion that the Indo-Germanic voiceless stop consonants (p,t, k) become changed in Germanic to the corresponding voiceless open consonants. In other words, according to Grimm, Indo-Germanic (p, t, k,) are represented in Germanic by (f, θ, h,) sound. A further study of words from Indo-Germanic and Germanic, disclosed the fact that this law does not operate in the case of all the Germanic words containing the Indo-Germanic voiceless stop consonants. In place of the voiceless open consonants which are expected in Germanic according to Grimm's Law many words have voiced stop sound derived from an earlier voiced open sound. This meant that in primitive Germanic in place of the voiceless open consonants, voiced open consonants had resulted from Indo-Germanic voiceless stop consonants. As sound laws do not admit of exceptions the inference was that there was some combinative factor at work which resulted in the voicing of these voiceless open consonants in primitive Germanic. Grimm and his contemporaries could not discover this combinative factor. Karl Verner, a disciple of Grimm, continued his research on the subject and forty years later, he discovered that the variable Indo-Germanic accent was responsible for the hitherto unaccountable voicing of the Germanic voiceless open consonants. His discovery has been formulated into a law which has been named after him as Verner's Law.

Verner's Law (1875) satisfactorily explains "the apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law". Though Grimm had stated that Indo-Germanic voiceless stop sounds (p, t, k,) become voiceless open consonants. (f, θ, h,) in Germanic, in positions other than initial, these sounds are sometimes seen to be voiced in Germanic. Verner explained that the reason for this voicing was the position of the Indo-Germanic accent. According to him when the Indo-Germanic accent did not fall on the vowel immediately preceding the consonants in question these voiceless open consonants became voiced in Germanic. In West Germanic, the resulting voiced open sound was changed into a voiced stop sound. Thus from Indo-Germanic [t] in 'centum' west Germanic has a (d) in 'hundred' instead of the corresponding voiceless open sound which was to be expected according to Grimm's law.

For example in the Old English verb 'weor an' which is derived from Germanic 'wer an' we find the operation of Grimm's Law because the Indo-Germanic word 'wert' has the accent preceding the (t). But in the

third and fourth stems of this verb old English has the form 'wurden' and 'worden', containing (d) sound in place of the voiceless open sound in the first two stems. This happened because Old English 'wurdon' is derived from Germanic 'wurtum', which in turn is derived from Indo-Germanic 'wurtum'. Thus in the third and fourth stems of the verb Indo-Germanic accent instead of preceding the voiceless stop consonant, follows it. Therefore it becomes a voiced open sound in Germanic and is in turn changed into a voiced stop sound in West Germanic. This is true of all the voiceless stop consonants of 'Indo-Germanic' as represented in Germanic accent. English words, illustrating Verner's Law, therefore, contain the voiced stop sounds instead of the voiced open sounds in Primitive Germanic, because in the West Germanic branch the voiced open sounds at a very early date become changed into voiced stop sounds.

Under the same conditions in which Indo-Germanic [p, t, k] become voiced open sounds in Germanic, primitive Germanic [s] was voiced to (z). This in west Germanic usually appears as (r). Hence we have in the four stems of the old English verb 'ceosan' (ceosan, ceas, curon, coren) the first two stems with an (s) sound and the last two stems with an (r) sound. The (r) in the modern form "were" is also formed in this way while 'was' has an (s). Verner's Law is thus seen to be of great importance in accounting for the forms of the preterite tense in many strong verbs of English. Again, we find the operation of Verner's Law in many causative verbs in English because the Indo-Germanic forms of these had their accent on the ending and not on the stem. Thus from the verb 'rise' we have the causative form 'rear'.

Karl Verner, by providing an explanation for the apparent exceptions to the sound changes formulated by his master Grimm, has been able to vindicate the claim of regularity for the sound shifting involved in Grimm's Law. By pointing out the change in the conditions in which the two laws operate, Verner was able to establish that, as usual, sound laws do not admit of exceptions.

Q. 14. What is meant by ablaut ? Write an essay on its importance in the history of English language.

Ans. Ablaut which literally means 'of sound' was a term used by Grimm to indicate the system by which the primitive communities speaking the Teutonic language enriched their vocabulary three fold by dint of opacing the vowel sound in their words. The term used by Grimm indicates a certain offing or distancing of vowel sounds by which simple words have been provided with a ready change of form which promptly qualifies them to express a difference in significance. The English vocabulary contains in it many relics of this method of variation in vowel sounds. We have the verb 'bind' different only in its vowel from the two nouns

'band' and 'bond'. Similarly we can see ablaut variations in the vowels of the verb 'shear', the noun 'share' a second noun 'shire', and the adjective 'sheer' This shows how, with well-defind vowel variations, the same consonantal frame-work may be made to perform a variety of services.

It is in the conjugations of verbs that the Ablaut has found its permanent place and its pecuiiar sphere. Here it has come to stay. In what are called 'strong verbs' ablaut or vowel gradation has become the chief means of expressing the distinctions of time. Thus the previous habit of denoting the past by reduplication is entirely superseded in these verbs. The very best examples of vowel gradation in English are to be found in the verbs in Old English, particularly those which have their chief distinctions of time indicated by the vowel series (I, A, U) as in sing, sang, sung. Similarly we have ring, rang, rung, and drink, drank, drunk etc.

Though this ancient system of vowel gradation has been weakened in Modern English, traces of it are to be met with in plenty. With a little restoration of the vowels many existing words can be brought back to the respective series. Thus if the word 'run' is restored to the original form 'rin', then the ablaut series would be completed as rin, ran, run, just as in sing, sang, sung. In the same manner it is possible to reconstruct many old verbs which have had their conjugational forms, modernised. For instance, if we trace the verb 'swell' to its primitive forms, we discover the Ablaut series for that verb to be swil, swal, swul. Many verbs, however, still retain their ablaut series intact. Swim, swam, swum, belonging to the vocalic series (i, a, u,) may be pointed out as an example of this. Though the working of analogy has upset the vowel gradations in many verbs by making the vowel of the preterite to be modelled on that of the participle, children who are just beginning to speak, accidentally restore such verbs to their original forms. For instance, it is not uncommon for a little child to use the form 'dag' for the preterite of dig and the form stang for the preterite of sting. In both cases the modern forms of the preterite are based on the vowel in the participle (dug, stung) and it is interesting to note that the verb 'dig' was a weak verb as late as the seventeenth century.

The strong verbs in the language in which the ablaut variations are clearly seen, are gradually and slowly dropping out of use. They are characterized by the internal vowel change affecting the preterite and participle and by the participle ending in -n. In many cases the participle ending has fallen away as in 'bound', derived from 'bounden'. On the whole the strong verbs now present a broken and decayed order of words, the dilapidated remains of an ancient system. It is only by putting together the scattered uses of various times and various regions that we are able to present this unique order of words in any continuous form. The system shows a remarkable tenacity of life. For over a thousand years there has been a slow, continual tendency in the language to make the strong 'verbs' join the ranks of the weak verbs which easily outnumber them. Even in

the Saxon period when the strong verbs presented a stronger and more uniform front, the disintegration had already begun. While the Ablaut scheme retained its hold on the national mind it converted any material which came convenient as when from Latin Scribere was formed, Scrife, scraf, scrifen (shrive, shrove, shriven). This is the oldest verb we know to have been added to the ranks of English strong verbs within historic times. The total number of this sort that can be collected is very small. One such is the preterite 'pled' to Romanesque 'plead' now called an Americanism, but actually used by Spenser in his 'Faerie Queene'.

By general consent, the conjugation of the strong verbs is considered a striking phenomenon. The venerable sire of Teutonic philology, namely, Jacob Grimm, regards the strong preterites as constituting one of the chief beauties of the Teutonic family of languages.

Q. 15. What is umlaut ? Give an account of the different kinds of umlaut in English.

Ans. The study of the history of any language will convince us that language never remains static and uniform. It is in a state of growth and development all the time. Though the changes in the language are imperceptible till after-wards, and are often apparently capricious, analysis of the historical changes will show us that each language follows certain patterns of development which are quite clear in restrospect and that definite cause can be assigned to most sound changes. One type of historical changes which we come across in our study of language, is known as assimilation. It may be defined as the process by which one sound becomes changed into a second under the influence of a third. When we consider the inherent nature of the assimilative process we find that assimilation may consist in the modification of a preceding sound through the influence of a following one or it may consist in the reverse process. In our study of the history of English, we come across certain vowel changes in Old English commonly known as Umlaut or Mutation. This indicates one kind of assimilation in which a preceding vowel changes its quality because of the influence of the vowel which follows it.

In Old English there are two kinds of Umlaut or Mutation. The first is known as front mutation or -i or-j Mutation. It affects back vowels and is caused by a following i or j which causes the fronting of the back vowel. The second kind of mutation is that which is known as back umlaut or u-mutation and it affects front vowels. It is mainly caused by (u) or (o) and is also caused in some dialects by [a]. Hence it is also known as o/a mutation. As a result of u-mutation a vowel glide [u] is developed and this combines with the preceding front vowel to form a diphthong. While -i- or-j- mutation is a change common to all the dialects of Old English, u-mutation takes place in different dialects, in varying

degrees of frequency. Unlike u-mutation, -i or-j mutation is less liable to be upset by analogy. In West Saxon particularly, we notice that the diphthongized forms caused by back mutation are often given up in favour of simple vowels which may be present in some inflexional forms.

To take i-or j-mutation first, we find that according to this all original back vowels when followed in the next syllable of word by-i- or -j- are fronted to the corresponding front vowels ![1] Evidently the process of i-or-j- mu ation had taken place before the period of the earliest O.E. documents. It may, therefore, be taken as having begun at least a century earlier, that is, in the sixth century. As this change has affected the loan words borrowed by the English after their settling down in England, it must have been carried out during the period following upon their occupation of the country. In addition to the fronting of back vowels, we find another change taking place as a result of i-mutation. This is the raising of the O.E. [ae] derived by isolative change from an earlier [a] to the mid-vowel (e).

We find the operation of front mutation into the old English vowels [o:, a: a, ae, u:, u:] all of which get changed to the corresponding front vowels. For example, primitive old English o:, whatever its origin, when followed by-i or-j, first becomes changed into the mid-front rounded vowel written (oe). In West Saxon this is unrounded to (e) before King Alfred's time, but some traces of the old (oe) spelling are seen in his works. Thus from the nominative and accusative plural and the dative singular of 'boc' (book) which had the form 'boki,' we have 'bec'. Similarly from the Old Saxon, sokian, we have secan (to seek). From O.E. fo: da (food) we have the verb 'fod jan' which becomes feden, by i-mutation. Similarly primitive Old English 'cwoni' becomes 'cwen' (queen). Primititive Old English a: becomes fronted to ae: as in 'dal-jan' which becomes dealan (deal), tak-jan which becomes taecan (teach). In the preterite singular of 'tak-jan' we have tahte which is changed in Modern English to 'taught'. In place of this back vowel (a) in 'taught' the present form 'teach' has the front vowel (i :) because of front mutation in Old English. The Old English vowels (a) and ( ) are changed into (ae) and (e) respectively by i-mutation as in the following examples :—

Primitive Old English ha bb jan becomes h aebban
Primitive Old English slagin becomes sl ae gen
Primitive Old English Saettjan becomes settan
Primitive Old English sl *ae* gin becomes slean.

Front mutation results in the changing of pr. O.E. (u) to (y). Thus full jan becomes (fyllan to fill). The front vowel (i) in the modern verb 'fill' is the result of the original fronting of the Old English (u) by i-mutation. O.E. 'putti' also becomes changed by front mutation to pytt (pit). The

1. H.C. Wyld : Short History of English.

fronting of O.E. (u:) to (y:) is illustrated by Old English 'mys' (mice) from earlier 'musi'.

In addition to the vowels, the diphthongs also were affected by i-mutation which took place during the old English period. The diphthongs (ea:) and (io:) were changed into (ie) as illustrated by 'hieran' derived from 'hear jan', and 'ciese' from cio si . The short diphthongs (ea) and (io) also became fronted to (ie) under the influence of a following i-or j. Thus feall jan becomes fiellan (to cause) fall and 'hiordi' becomes 'hierde' (shepherd).

While front mutation is more characteristic of W. Saxon than of any other dialect of Old English, all the O.E. Dialects are more or less subject to the changes involved in back mutation or u-mutation. This consists in the dipthonging of (i), (e) to (io), (eo) when followed by (u) or (o) in the next syllable. In the Mercian dialect (ae) is also dipthongized when (u) or (o) follows in the next syllable. What actually happens in back-mutation is that the (u) or (o) first modifies the preceding consonant which, in turn, produces a lip or rounded glide between itself and the preceding front vowel. Thus 'witum' becomes 'witwum' and then 'wiwtwum' and 'wiutum' and finally 'wiotum', and later 'weotum'. Thus we find that by back mutation pr. O.E. 'witum' becomes changed into 'wiotum' and later it becomes, 'weotum'. In West Saxon this mutation takes place only when (: a) the word begins with w or any other consonant followed by w. In such cases back mutation occurs, whatever the consonant that intervenes between the i or e and the following u or o a. Back mutation takes place also in cases where the intervening consonant is l, r, or a lip consonant p, m or f. If in some inflexional forms of a word there is the (u) sound causing back mutation while it is absent in other forms. West Saxon usually gives up the inflexional forms with (u) on the analogy of the other forms. Thus the inflected forms with back mutation are dispensed with and in their place, the undiphthongized forms are used. In the noun 'scip' though the nominative and accusative plural (scipu) as well as the dative plural (scipum) contain an (u) sound causing back-mutation. W. Saxon gives up the diphongized form in favour of the nominative singular scip which is undipthongised. As a result of this tendency, back mutation is far common in W. Saxon than in other dialects. The (io) and (eu) formed by u mutation become changed into (io) and (eo) are both levelled under (eo) in W. Saxon. The only word in which d (ae) undergoes back mutation in W. Saxon is alu (ale). The u-mutation of ae (a) to (eo) is a typical feature of Mercian. Examples of back mutation in W. Saxon are :—

efur (wild boar)	becomes	eofor,
herut (hart)	becomes	heorot,
cwicu (living)	becomes	cweocu.

All the non-West Saxon dialects show a tendency to diphthongize (i)

and (e) when followed by a back vowel, especially (u) to an extent unknown in the literary dialect of W. S. which is preserved in writing. This dipthonging is most frequent in Kentish and Anglian, though in Anglian the second element of the diphthong is often lost by the change known as smoothing. While other dialects preserve the diphtongized forms of words, W. Saxon gives them up in favour of inflexional forms where back-mutation is absent. Thus it eliminates the form 'geofu' (gift) in favour of 'giefu' formed on the analogy of 'giefe'.

Besides the two kinds of umlaut, namely front mutation and back-mutation already described, O.E. had another kind of mutation known as palatal mutation. The name was suggested by Bulbring to denote the loss of the second element of the diphthong (ea) in Anglian before the consonant groups (ht), (hs) and (hp) when followed by a front vowel or when final. A very similar process takes place later in W. Saxon affecting the diphthongs (eo), (io). Thus 'cneoht' which is to be expected from earlier 'eneht' is changed to 'cniht' or cniet' because the eo is fronted and first element raised to (i). This is an important change since the modern form of the word (knight) can only be derived from the 'cniht' type in O.E.

From what has been said already it is clear that umlaut or mutation is very important in our study of the history of the language. Without a knowledge of i or j umlaut, we could never understand the reason for our having what are called the irregular or mutated plurals in Modern English.

ENGLISH IN DIFFERENT PERIODS

5

Q. 16. Briefly discuss the three important periods in the History of English.

Ans. Anyone attempting to make a study of the history of a given language has to bear in mind a very important fact concerning the nature of language. It is that language is evolutionary and never static. As it continues to grow and develop, it is in a constant state of flux. It naturally follows then that we cannot very accurately divide the history of a language into definite periods. In other words, we cannot say that what is called Old English came to an end at a particular point of time or that Middle English had its beginning on a particular date. The truth is that all through the period which we call the Old English period the language was slowly and steadily growing and changing so that it had become materially changed in every aspect by the time it had reached what we generally call the Middle English period. As long as we keep this very important fact in mind, there is no harm in dividing the history of English into three main periods, as is usually done, in attempting a historical study of the language. The three periods in the history of English, namely Old English, Middle English and Modern English (the last of which is also called New English) may be further subdivided into periods of Early Old English, Late Old English, Early Middle English, Late Middle English, Early Modern English, Later Modern English and present day English, for more detailed study.

OLD ENGLISH PERIOD :

What students of language usually call the 'Old English' or 'Anglo-Saxon' period, covers the period from the earliest written documents, about the end of the seventh century, to the beginning of the twelfth century by which time the effects of the Norman conquest were becoming perceptible in the language. Old English as distinguished from Middle English and Modern English, is remarkable for the homogeneous nature of its vocabulary. It was almost a pure, unmixed language, with very little foreign element in it. There were only a few Latin words and some Old Norse ones borrowed into the language during the Old English period. Of these the Old Norse or Scandinavian words were so closely related to the native Anglo-Saxon ones that they could hardly be recognized as foreign words.

Another important characteristic of Old English was that it had a relatively full inflexional system. There were four case endings for the nouns and adjectives and much fuller verbal endings than have existed

at any later period in the history of the language. As against the modern forms of the noun 'stone' (stone, stones, stone's, stones') there were in Old English the inflexional endings for the four cases in the singular and the plural as shown below :—

Singular		Plural	
Nominative	St*a*n	Nominative	St*a*ns
Accusative	St*a*n	Accusative	St*a*nas
Genitive	St*a*nes	Genitive	St*a*na
Dative	St*a*ne	Dative	St*a*num

In the declensions of the adjective and the conjugations of the verbs too we find that Old English had a greater number of grammatical forms than Modern English. The history of the language indicates a simplification of accidence resulting from the gradual shedding of most of the Old English inflexions before the Modern English period. On the basis of the full inflexional system prevailing in the Old English period, it is often referred to as "the period of full inflexions"

In pronunciation and syntax too Old English was very different from Modern English. While Modern English spelling is not strictly phonetic, Old English was roughly phonetic in its spelling. At least it did not have the 'silent syllable' or other vagaries which characterize Modern English spelling. Its word-order was not fixed like that of present day English. This was one of the consequences of the full inflexional system in which relations between words in a sentence could all be expressed with the help of the inflexional ending and there was no need to fix the word order as in Modern English. The word order in Old English sentences was, therefore, quite free and the verb often came at the very end of the sentence. This is illustrated by the following literal translation of an Old English sentence from "Other's Voyages" :- "Others said to his Lord, King Alfred, that he, of all Northmen northmost lived."

Old English had a multiplicity of dialectal forms among which the dialect of King Alfred's Wessex (known as West Saxon) alone has left literary works of any great value. The political importance of Wessex among the Anglo Saxon Kingdoms made West Saxon to be accepted as the standard form of the vernacular in the 10th century. It became a sort of common literary language all over the country and the literature of other dialects was often re-copied into the standard West Saxon form. It is this West Saxon which is now accepted as the basis of our study of Old English. But it is to be remembered that Modern English is not descended from this West Saxon as there is no direct continuity between this literary form of Old English and later forms of English. Modern English takes its origin from the Midland dialect of Middle English (represented by Mercian in Old English) and has in it some elements of South Eastern. The West Saxon dialect of Old English is best represented

in the present day by the rural dialect of Gloucester, Somerset and Devon.

MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD :

The period we call Middle English may be taken to extend from the beginning of the twelfth century, to the end of the fifteenth century. Some historians of language take the Middle English period as extending from about 1050 to 1450. It is thus seen to begin with the Norman conquest and to end with the transitional period marking the close of the Middle Ages. During this period we find vast changes in the English vocabulary, partly as a result of Scandinavian invasions and partly as a result of Norman conquest. Though the Scandinavian influence on the Northern and Midland dialects had been exerted earlier in the late O.E. period, it is only in the Middle English period that we have written documents showing the Scandinavianizing of the vocabulary. With the coming of the Norman invaders and the establishment of the Norman rule in England, the basic character of English vocabulary was finally lost. The words now introduced into the language from the language of the Norman rulers were so many and so different from the words borrowed from a Germanic language like Old Norse, that the entire character of the English vocabulary was changed by them.

As far as the O.E. inflexions are concerned, they had already become much blurred and weakened in late O.E. by the influence of the Old Norse brought in by the Scandinavian settlers. The inflexions became further reduced in Middle English and many different inflexional endings became levelled under one standard form. Hence the Middle English period is termed the period of "levelled inflexions". As a consequence of the weakening of the inflexions, the word-order became less free and the use of prepositions and periphrases was greatly encouraged. As the work of copying Middle English books was mostly done by French scribes who were not familiar with Old English spelling and were not used to some of the Anglo-Saxon letters, there was much confusion and uncertainty in spelling. The roughly phonetic spelling of Old English was replaced by a spelling which very often was far from being phonetic. The French scribes, finding that some of the old spellings had ceased to represent accurately the changing pronunciation, introduced their own spelling conventions. To make matters worse, there was at the time no literary or standard dialect like the West Saxon of the Old English period: Latin was used for all learned work and Norman French was the language of aristocratic life while English was reduced to the position of a set of spoken dialects with no common effort made to evolve a standard or literary form.

By the 14th century, however, the vernacular finally asserted itself as the language of English culture. London having become the centre of commercial, political, and ecclesiastical life, the dialect of London gradually emerged as the wide-spread medium of written expression or

the literary standard acceptable to all users of the language.As the population of London was of a very heterogeneous nature being drawn from all over the country, the dialect of London was a mixed dialect of the educated and commercial classes and quite distinct from the local tongue spoken in the streets. The nearness of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge helped to make the London dialect something wider and of greater influence. The flourishing East Anglian trade in wool and cloth made the contact between London and the East Midlands very close. East Midland therefore came to influence the London dialect with its original underlayer of South Eastern. Thus modern English, developed from the dialect of London, is born of the East Midland and South Eastern dialects of Middle English. It does not take its origin from West Saxon, which was the form of the language used by King Alfred and preserved for us in Old English works of literature. By the later Middle English period the dialect of London had become generally accepted as the standard form of the written language. Two centuries later the spoken form of the language was also standardized in the same way. The Middle English period had come to an end with the introduction of printing in England by Caxton. The later half of the 15th century marks the transition from Middle English to Modern English. During this period so many rapid changes took place in the language that with the beginning of the16th century it had entered upon a new phase of its history.

MODERN ENGLISH PERIOD :

The Modern English period extends from the beginning of the 16th century to the present day. This long period can be subdivided into Early Modern English period and Later Modern English period. The former covers the period from the end of the reign of King Henry VII to the accession of Queen Anne (about 1700). The latter extends from 1700 to the present day. Historically, the Modern English period extends from the close of the Middle Ages and the flowering of the Renascence to the present day which seems to mark the transition to a still newer form of English which is now in the making.

The period is marked by a vast and varied increase in the vocabulary. The Renascence led to innumerable borrowings from Latin and ever since all the new words required to express the vast technological innovations and scientific discoveries of the modern age have been coined from Greek or Latin elements. Besides these, the English language has freely borrowed words from all the languages spoken by the many peoples with whom the growth of the British Empire brought the English into contact. Apart from the vast increase in vocabulary, another characteristic of Modern English is the loss of many of those inflexions which had already been 'levelled' in Middle English. Because of this Modern English is often referred to as the period of 'lost inflexions'. A more rigid word-order and increased use of prepositions and periphrases have been the

consequences of the loss of inflexions in Modern English.

The distinctive feature which makes Modern English to stand out from the earlier forms of the language, is the great change which has come over the pronunciation of its vowels during the period from 1450 to 1700. During this period English vowels which formerly had very nearly the sounds of classical Latin were changed into their present sounds, some of which are peculiar to the English language. At about the time when this change in the pronunciation of the vowels happend, English spelling was permanently fixed by the printers. This spelling being based on the pronunciation characteristic of Late Middle English was rather unphonetic even when it was first fixed in accordance with printing conventions. It has become more unphonetic with the great changes which have come over the pronunciation of the English vowels during the Modern English period. As a result of this, a very important feature of Modern English is that its spelling instead of being a phonetic representation of the sounds, is largely ideographic or symbolical of thoughts and things.

Thus we find that each of the main periods in the history of the English language is marked by its peculiar characteristics. English which began as a fully inflected language in the Anglo-Saxon period, has its inflexions weakened very much by the end of the Middle English period. During the Modern English period, often known as the period of 'lost inflexions', the inflexions have been almost completely lost. Thus the history of the language has been one of steady simplification of accidence. This had led to the gradual fixing of the word order and the increased use of prepositions and periphrases.

Q. 17. What is assimilation ? Describe the various phonetic changes resulting from 'assimilation'.

Ans. Human speech has never been static and uniform, but has always been undergoing change and development. Since the days of King Alfred, the English language has undergone so many changes in the pronunciation of its words that we can now hardly identify the most familiar of English words when we come across them in a passage of Old English read out to us. Though the changes which have taken place in the pronunciation of English words during the long period of time which separates us from King Alfred and his contemporaries, may at first seem to be capricious, they are not really so. A detailed analysis of the historical changes in English pronunciation will convince us that the patterns of development are quite clear in retrospect and that definite causes can be assigned to most of them. Assimilation is one type of historical change, which, when analysed, throws valuable light on the changeable nature of English pronunciation.

Charles Thomas, Professor of Speech at the university of Florida, defines assimilation as the process by which one sound is changed to a

second under the influence of a third. As an example of this he takes the word income tax in which the alveolar (n) changes to the velar (ŋ) under the influence of the following velar ("K"). Another useful definition of assimilation is given by Leonard Bloomfield in his book "Language". He points out that in assimilation the position of the speech agents for the production of one sound is altered to a position more like that of a neighbouring sound. The changes of (n) to (ŋ) in 'income tax' (iŋ, kemtacks) is an example of this. Here the second syllable of 'income' is reduced in stress so that it becomes (k ə m) instead of (Kam). As the whole phrase telescopes within itself, the time used for shifting from one syllable to the other is shortened. The tongue cannot, however, move rapidly from the alveolar contact of (n) to the velar contact of (K). Hence the tongue anticipates the velar contact by shifting from (n) to (ŋ) so that the sequence (ŋ k) can be made with a single contact of the tongue in place of two contacts required for (nk). This shows that thought outstrips utterance and assimilation is the result of mental anticipation of the mechanical adjustments involved.

Many assimilations may start as accidental mispronunciations of an accented sequence of sounds. Some of them never progress beyond this stage, being noticeable enough to be adversely commented on and corrected. An example of this kind of assimilation is heard in the way some people pronounce the word 'length'. The shift from the velar (ŋ) to the linguadental (θ) being too much for their muscular control they change the (ŋ) to (n) in anticipation of the following (θ) and say (enθ). This is not accepted in Standard English where we still have the pronunciation (e ŋ θ) or (e, ŋ k, θ) which the added (k) serves as an insulation against assimilation. Some assimilations are generally accepted with such readiness that all adverse criticism becomes futile. We have instances of assimilation in the derivatives of the Latin preposition 'cum' in works like combine, contact and conquer, (kambain) (kontaekt) (ko ŋ ke). In two of these three instances we find that the nasal has approximated the position of the following consonant : the (m) having been assimilated to (n) before an alevelar consonant and to (ŋ) before a velar consonant. Between the two extremes of the accidental assimilations as in (en θ) and the established ones as in (ko ŋ kə) we have many others which are accepted by some speakers and condemned by others. To this group belongs the compound word (inkem-taeks). General acceptance or rejection of a particular assimilative process, however, has nothing to do with its occurrence.

KINDS OF ASSIMILATION :

Assimilations need not always be the result of the following sound influencing the preceding one to anticipate the sound that follows. There are also the assimilations in which the first sound influences the second or the preceding one influences the following one. For instance, in the

past tense of walk, (walked) the inflexional (d) becomes assimilated to the voiceless (t) after the voiceless consonant (k). Similarly 'baked' becomes (beikt). This kind of assimilation is known as progressive assimilation. When the following sound influences the preceding one as in length and conquer (len θ), (koŋ kə) we call it regressive. There is also a third kind of assimilative change known as reciprocal assimilation where the two sounds influence each other and combine to produce a third sound which is a sort of compromise between the two. The British pronunciation of issue (isju) is difficult for most Americans and they habitually use the assimilated (iʃju). Similarly we have reciprocal assimilation in the modern pronunciation of the word 'vision' from the earlier (vizjan).

VARIETIES OF PHYSICAL CHANGE :-

The terms progressive, regressive and reciprocal are used to indicate the direction of influence in the assimilative process. Apart from this we have to consider the nature and varieties of the physical changes involved. First of all it is seen that assimilation may result in the voicing or unvoicing of consonants. In words like "northern" (nor ð en) and "thieves" (θ i : vz) we find that the consonants (ð) and (v) are the result of the voicing (θ) (f) which are followed by the vowel (e) the original form of thieves having been thievs in which the (e) before ('s') was pronounced. Instances of unvoicing due to assimilation are more numerous. The inflexional ending (ed) ends in (d) so long as it remains a separate syllable. But when it is not a separate syllable it becomes assimilated to a voiceless consonant (t), after an unvoiced consonant as in 'baked' pronounced (beikt). But it remains (d) after a voiced consonant as in begged (begd) even when the (ed) is nonsyllabic. In the same way we find that inflexional 'es' continues to end in (z) when the ending is syllabic as in 'guesses', (gesiz). But even when it is nonsyllabic inflexional -es and s remain z if they are preceded by a voiced consonant. Thus 'begs' has a final (x) in pronunciation while 'bakes' has final (s). In the phrase 'used to' we have another instance of the change from voiced to voiceless consonant resulting from assimilation. "Used to" is pronounced (just) because the (d) in 'used' is assimilated to the corresponding voiceless consonant (t) by the voiceless 't' which follows. Another class of assimilation in English involves changes in the place of articulation of the nasal consonants. This is illustrated in such derivatives of Latin cum as combine (kam' bain) comfort (k ʌ . m e, f ə t) which retain the unassimilated (m) before labials, and labiodentals as distinguished from 'content', 'condemn', 'congress' which illustrate assimilation of the nasal to the place of articulation of the following consonant.

MINOR ASSIMILATIONS :

Apart from the instances of assimilation already dealt with, there are some others involving a shift from one phoneme to another. Thus the (t) in eight (ei θ) the d of width (wid θ) as well as the (n) in tenth and the

(i) in health are usually assimilated to the dental position in anticipation of the dental (θ) which follows. These are minor or partial assimilations in which the change is slight enough to be not easily detected by the untrained ear. But the trained listener can make out that the (g) of 'geese' is a different allophone, which, unlike that of goose, is partially assimilated to the front vowel (i) which follows it and is articulated farther forward in the mouth.

A knowledge of the assimilative processes which are continually taking place in language, enables us to account for the vowels in the plurals of "irregular" nouns. We find that the dative singular as well as the nominative and accusative plurals of these nouns like feet, geese etc. have a front vowel in place of the back vowel in the other forms. For example the inflexional forms of 'fot' in Old English were :

	Singular	**Plural**
Nomitative	Fot	Fet
Accusative	Fot	Fet
Genitive	Fotes	Fota
Dative	Fet	Fotum

If we trace these forms back to their Germanic ancestors we find that the primitive Garmanic dative singular was foti and the plural had the form fotiz. Though the change by which these forms were reduced to fet is usually described as "i umlaut" it is only another instance of assimilation. Here the back vowel "o" has been fronted by the influence of the following front vowel. It is the case with the other mutation plurals like 'man', 'tooth', 'mouse', 'louse' etc. Though the assimilative process continues all the time in language, it takes some time for all the changes brought about by it to be accepted in standard usage.

Q. 18. Write a short essay on the characteristics of Old English and show how it is nearer to modern German than to modern English.

Ans. Anyone who makes a careful study of Modern English, Modern German and Old English (as preserved in the writings of King Alfred in the 9th century) cannot help being impressed by one fact. This is the close resemblance between Old English or the language of King Alfred, and Modern German. A student of both the languages cannot fail to notice how Old English was characterised by all those features which distinguish Modern German from Modern English. In other words, "Old English is nearer to Modern German than to Modern English."

SYSTEM OF GENDERS :

In considering the characteristics of Old English it is advisable to take the West Saxon dialect of King Alfred as the standard form among the many dialects spoken by the Anglo-Saxon people down to the middle of the twelfth century. (The year 1150 has been considered by most

historians of language as marking the end of the Old English period). The Old English language had all the grammatical peculiarities which distinguish Modern English from Modern German. To begin with, it had a very unreasonable system of genders which had nothing to do with natural law or common sense. In these days of equality between the sexes ladies would be shocked to hear that the words for 'woman' and 'maiden' (wi:f, maegden) were both neuter in Old English. At the same time 'stone' and 'foot' were masculine, while hand was feminine. In this irrational system of genders Old English is very much like Modern German and quite unlike Modern English. In modern German 'kopf' meaning head, is masculine while 'haupt' which also means head, is neuter. The word for hand is feminine but foot (fuzz) is masculine and legbein is neuter. As in Old English, in Modern German too the words for woman and maiden are both neuter. Modern English is very sensible in its system of genders. A noun is considered masculine, feminine or neuter according to the sex or absence of sex which shows it to be a he (male) or a she (female) or a thing.

SYSTEM OF INFLEXIONS :

Another characteristic of Old English in which it closely resembles modern German and is very different from modern English, consists in its system of inflexions. While Old English and Modern German can both be called fully inflected languages, modern English is fit to be called a language with lost inflexions. Modern English nouns have only one case-ending namely the 's' or 'es' of the genitive. There is practically only one way of forming the plurals, namely, by the addition of 's' or 'es'. The few exceptions which can be learned in a few minutes do not affect the general rule. Old English nouns have five cases—nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, and instrumental. They are divided into several declensions each with its own set of inflexions for case and number. This is paralleled by the inflexional system in German nouns.

ADJECTIVES :

In Old English as well as in Modern German the adjectives too are fully inflected. For the single form of the adjective good in Modern English there are six inflected forms in Modern German, the choice of the right form being dependent on the gender, number and case of the noun which it qualifies, as well as on other grammatical relations. This brings Modern German nearer to Old English, where, in place of the single form of an adjective like 'glad' in Modern English, there were eleven distinct forms like glaed, glae dre, glae dne, glae dra, gladu, glades, gladum, glade, gladena, glada, gladan.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS :

In the conjugation of verbs also we find old English marked by greater complexity of grammatical forms which brings it nearer to modern German than modern English. In the conjugation of a verb like sing, for

instance, modern English has only eight forms (sing, singest, sings, singeth, sang, sangest, singing, sung) of which three (singest, singeth and sangest) are rarely used now. The conjugation of the same verb gives us sixteen distinct forms in German. These resemble the sixteen different forms which occur in Old English too in the conjugation of the same word. Another point of resemblance between Old English and Modern German is the prominent place occupied by the subjunctive mood in the grammar of both, while in Modern English usage we find very few-traces of this mood.

VOCABULARY:

Turning from Old English grammar to Old English vocabulary, we find that here too the resemblances between Old English and Modern German are greater than those between Old English and Modern English. Old English, like Modern German, provides an example of what is called a pure or unmixed vocabulary. In this, more than in any thing else, it is closer to Modern German than to Modern English. The Old English vocabulary, except for a few Latin words relating to the church and its institutions, and rituals and a sprinkling of Celtic and Old Norse words, was composed of native Teutonic words. Even in expressing technical terms relating to Christian theology the Old English writers preferred coining their compound words and derivatives from native words instead of adopting Latin words which were readily available to them. In this homogeneous nature of its vocabulary Old English is nearer to Modern German than Modern English. The vocabulary of Modern German is almost pure or unmixed, containing very few words which are not derived from native Germanic roots. The vocabulary of Modern English, on the other hand, is enriched by borrowings from most of the languages of the world. It is, in fact, the richest and most heterogeneous vocabulary in the world, in which the nucleus of native Germanic words is far outnumbered by the vast majority of foreign words, borrowed from different languages. It is thus evident that in its vocabulary, consisting almost entirely of native Germanic words, as in its grammatical features, Old English is nearer to Modern German than to Modern English.

Q. 19. Write a short essay on the Old English vocabulary.

Ans. The characteristic feature of Old English vocabulary which will not fail to make its impression on one who makes a comparative study of Old English and Modern English is its homogeneous or unmixed nature. In this respect it is contrasted with Modern English which has the largest and most varied vocabulary in the world. During the Old English period the English nation was in its infancy and had not yet entered upon its eventful history which later brought it into contact with most of the important peoples of the world. The language was still content with its limited Germanic vocabulary with very few importations from

Latin, Scandinavian and Celtic sources. All the words were fully inflected, and grammatical relations were expressed by means of inflexional endings. The vocabulary of Old English, characteristically enough, abounded in synonyms for sea, ship, warrior, battle, hero etc. showing that the Anglo-Saxons were a war-like people, who were also lovers of the sea-faring life. Another characteristic of Old English vocabulary with which one cannot help being impressed, is its extreme resourcefulness. While at later stages in its history, English has been freely borrowing words from the languages spoken by the peoples with whom the English had come into contact, it was content to fashion its own compound words and derivatives from native sources for expressing new ideas during the Old English period. If English had retained this power of self-creation instead of almost abandoning it after the Norman Conquest, there would not have been so many foreign words as at present, in the English vocabulary. Though Old English vocabulary was very small in comparison with Modern English vocabulary it was particularly rich in vivid expressions and poetic periphrases. When we come across a passage of Old English poetry, where a ship is lovingly described as "the foamy necked floater of the sea, most like a bird" we understand not only the ancient Briton's love of his ship and the seafaring life but also something of his vivid, poetic imagination. In fact, most of the synonyms for warrior, ship and sea are found to be wonderfully vivid and poetic.

FEW FOREIGN WORDS :

To take the practically homogeneous nature of the vocabulary first, we find that unlike Modern English, Old English has only a sprinkling of foreign words. There are a few Latin words borrowed while the Anglo-Saxons were still living in their continental homes. Among them are wine, chalice (Old English 'calic'), monger (Old English 'mangere' from Latin 'mango' meaning 'retailer mint') (from Old English mynet Latin 'moneta',) papper, plum etc. Having settled down in Britain the Anglo-Saxon tribes borrowed a few more Latin words like street, chester (from Latin Castra, meaning fortified town) from the Romanised Celts. From the Celtic language, the borrowings were very few as there was nothing to induce the ruling Saxons to borrow words from the language of the vanquished natives.

THREE WAYS OF ENRICHING VOCABULARY :

It is with the conversion of the English to Christianity that we find the next occasion for borrowings from Latin, the language in which the Roman missionaries taught the Christian faith. Among the Latin words adopted for expressing the new ideas relating to Christianity are pope, archbishop, bishop, priest, monk, nun, abbot, chapter, mass, etc. According to Jesperson, the chief interest for us in this chapter of linguistic history lies, not in the words which were adopted, but in the words which were not adopted. Unlike their successors in later

generations the Anglo-Saxons very often refused to take words bodily from a foreign language to express new ideas in English. They tried, in three different ways, to enrich their vocabulary by making use of native elements. One method was to coin new words from foreign words by affixing suffixes and prefixes to them. The second was to modify the meaning of Old words to suit the new faith. The third was to coin new compound words and derivatives from native words. As examples of foreign words with native affixes we can take preost-had (priest-hood) biscophad (episcopate) biscopscir (diocese) scriftscir (the parish confessor's district). Among Old English words which were given new meanings to suit the Christian faith are eastrum, the festival of the pagan goddess of spring (now the Christian festival of Easter), 'wigbeod' (originally idol table, but used to, signify 'altar' after the introduction of Christianity) and 'bletsian' (originally meaning 'to sprinkle with the blood of the sacrificed beast', but having the meaning 'to give benediction' after the coming of Christianity). Among the new coinages from native sources for expressing ideas relating to the church are words like god spell, meaning good news, as a literal translation of Greek Evangelion, and hand boc (hand-book), handpreost (chaplain) tapor-berend (taper-bearer) dyppan (baptise). The Old English language was in that healthy state where it was natural for a language to utilize to the utmost its own resources for the expression of new ideas and objects. With very little effort the Anglo-Saxons could make their vocabulary to express any new idea. Great ingenuity is displayed by the Old English writers in inventing out of native elements new words like 'heahfaeder' for scribes and pharisees. The archbishop is also called 'heahbiscop' or 'ealor biscop.' A hermit was 'ansetla' (sole settler), or 'western setla' (desert settler). For the disciples of Christ, we find, in addition to the word 'disciple' some dozen coinages including cniht, folgere, lecrnere, leorning cniht, leorning man etc. With the single word God we have ever so many compound words like godbot (atonement made to the church) godcund (divine, sacred) god-cudness (divinity, sacred office) god gied (idol) god-gimm (divine gem) and hosts of others.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN OLD ENGLISH VOCABULARY AND MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY :

These coinages indicate the difference between the Old English vocabulary and the Modern English vocabulary. In Old English everything was named by a native system of nomenclature easily understood even by the uneducated. In modern English as indicated by the modern equivalents for the Old English coinages, even simple ideas are expressed with the help of classical roots or word elements. Old English had also devised very useful compound words for expressing scientific ideas as well as grammatical or botanical terms. It is interesting to come across words like laece (leechcraft for medicine) tungotae (star-law for astronomy) efniht (equinox) sunn sted and sunngiate (solstice)

sunnfolgend (sunnfollower, for heliotrope) tid and genet (for terse and mood in grammar) foresetenss (before setting, for preposition). It is painful to think that the language has not retained these picturesque compound words.

OLD ENGLISH VOCABULARY : RICHNESS IN POSSIBILITIES :

The Old English vocabulary was quite rich in possibilities and, if left to itself, could have made its resources abundantly sufficient to provide vivid expressions for any concrete thing or abstract idea which had to be introduced into the language. If the Old English prose is often found to be clumsy or unwieldy (as is inevitable in a language with a free word-order) it is more the fault of the literature than of the vocabulary. That it was possible to write an impassioned prose of real literary merit with the help of homogeneous vocabulary of Old English is amply proved by King Alfred's report of the explorations of Ohthere and Wulfstan as well as by a few passages in the Saxon chronicle and in the homilies of Wulfstan. Turning to Old English poetry we find that the vividness and resourcefulness of the vocabulary as well as the picturesqueness of the compound words and derivatives have invested it with a rare charm.

ABUNDANCE OF SYNONYMS :

The Old English poet, in describing his hero, lavishes upon him a wealth of synonyms and epithets like "the brave prince, the bright hero, noble in war, eager and spirited" etc. We cannot help being struck by the wealth of synonyms in Old English for words like hero or prince, battle, ship, sea and a few other things dear to the Anglo-Saxons who were a war like people and who had also been a sea-faring people before settling down in Britain. The word hero has about thirty six synonyms in Beowulf, the finest poem in Old English. Of these only halford (lord) eorl (earl) cniht (knight) cyning (king) and thane have survived in later English. For battle a dozen synonyms exist in Beowulf; though none of these has been retained after the Norman conquest. In 'Beowulf' and other poems together we find about thirty synonyms for the sea out of which only, 'sea' (from Old English sae) is retained in popular use. For ship or boat also we find a wealth of synonyms making up a total of some thirty words in Beowulf and other poems together. This wealth of synonyms for certain classes of words in a language is accounted for by the fact that "a language has always many terms for those things that interest the speakers in their daily doings". The many words for the sea in Old English do not necessarily indicate that the users of the language were a seafaring nation. It indicates only that they had been a seafaring nation, who after giving up that life are cherishing in their imagination memories of that adventurous past.

ALLITERATION :

Another quality of the Old English language which is found not only in modern poetry but also in stock phrases in the language, is the

alliteration in phrases like 'part and parcel', 'faint and feeble', 'ducks and drakes', 'bold as brass', 'busy as bees', 'cool as cucumber', 'still as a stone', 'might and main', 'fret and fume', and 'nature and nurture'. After the Norman conquest, if Old English had retained its power of self-creation and had continued to devise new compounds and derivatives out of native sources whenever it had to express new ideas just as it had retained its alliterative word combinations, its vocabulary would not have become as heterogeneous as at present. Whether the language has gained in powers of expression because of the varied foreign elements it has, is now a matter for dispute. What we have to admit is that the Old English vocabulary, inspite of its limited and homogeneous nature, was a rich and picturesque one, capable of expressing any new idea by means of compounds and derivatives formed of native resources. This is a power which had become atrophied through centuries of foreign domination following upon the Norman conquest.

Q. 20. Point out the characteristics of Middle English.

Ans. Middle English, which as the name indicates, marks the middle period between Old English and Modern English, was evolved out of King Alfred's English during the three centuries following upon the Norman conquest of England. The vast changes which came over the language in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary during this period are not entirely to be attributed to the Norman Conquest, as is sometimes wrongly done. As a matter of fact, apart from the vast percentage of French loan words in the language, all the other features in the development of the language during the Middle English period would have remained the same even if the Normans had never conquered the country. To begin with, the considerable number of Old Norse words which make their appearance in the writing of the period had already entered into the speech of the people long before the Normans had set foot in England. But it was after the Norman conquest that these Scandinavian loans happened to be recorded in writing and so it would appear to later students at a cursory glance, that these words had also been introduced into the language after the Norman conquest. Again, it must be borne in mind that the weakening and loss of the inflexional endings of Old English words, which is an outstanding characteristic of Middle English, was not actually the result of the Norman conquest. It was the natural and inevitable consequence of the fixing of the Teutonic accent on the root syllable of a word. This had gradually caused the final syllables to become blurred and ultimately lost in pronunciation. It is however, true that the process of the weakening and loss of inflexional endings was helped and accelerated by the Norman conquest.

VARIOUS CHANGES :

A more important result of the conquest on the language was the

introduction of a vast number of French words which now constitute the bulk of English vocabulary. Another result of the Norman conquest was that the French scribes, entrusted with the task of writing English, not having traditional spellings to guide them, resorted to the French rules in the recording of English words. Thus the roughly phonetic character of English spelling in the Old English period was lost. During the latter part of the thirteenth century and the early part of the fourteenth English spelling had become more or less fixed. The French scribes had tried to represent the English words phonetically according to the rules of traditional French orthography. This in many cases, did not correspond to the actual sounds of the English words, the spellings of which, on that account, have become ideographic instead of being phonetic. With the weakening of the Old English inflexions, the grammar of Middle English had become very much simplified. It had also learned to benefit by the example of French grammar in certain respects. Thus in its grammar, spelling and vocabulary as well as in actual pronunciation of words, Middle English was quite different from Old English. It is also so different from Modern English as to have almost the character of another language.

FRENCH WORDS :

To take vocabulary first, we find that while Old English vocabulary was almost pure or unmixed containing only a sprinkling of Latin and Old Norse terms, Middle English vocabulary was a definitely heterogeneous one. During the Middle English period sweeping changes had come over the English vocabulary on account of the Danish invasions resulting in a Scandinavianizing of the Northern dialects, and the Norman Conquest resulting in a vast number of French loans relating to all departments of life. Though the Scandinavian words had entered the spoken language of Northumbria and East Anglia during the late Old English period they had not come to be written down till the Middle English period as these Northern dialects had produced no literature during the period following the Norse invasions. Hence, it would appear, from the writing of the period, that these are also Middle English borrowings, like the vast number of the French words introduced after the Norman Conquest. The French words which poured into the English language after the establishment of the Norman rule in England were those relating to the customs, ideas and ways of life characteristic of the Normans. Chief among them are terms relating to government, law and the church. There were also terms relating to warfare, hunting, falconry, fashion, learning, medicine and social life. In fact, considering the vast number and variety of French words which entered the English language during the Middle English period, Mario Pei is justified in pointing out in his book *The Story of English* : "As for vocabulary the Norman conquest acted like a bomb that smashes a dike and lets loose a flood."

LATIN WORDS :

Besides the large number of French words, a good number of Latin

words were also introduced into language during this period. These were mostly technical, legal and ecclesiastic terms and some of these have passed into popular use and become permanent parts of English. Among such words may be mentioned pauper, proviso, equivalent, legitimate, index, scribe, simile, memento, requiem etc. A marked feature of the vocabulary during this period is the gradual disappearance of many words of native origin which were commonly used till the beginning of the Middle English period. Some of them were driven out of use by their Scandinavian or French equivalents while others gradually fell into disuse. The net result of all this was that the English vocabulary which was more or less homogeneous or unmixed at the beginning of Middle English period had become definitely heterogeneous by the end of the period, being interlarded with Scandinavian, French and Latin loan words.

CHANGE IN GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE :

The Middle English period, which is often referred to as the period of "levelled inflexions" had witnessed many changes in the grammatical structure of the language. Chief among these was the gradual decay and ultimate loss of most of the Old English inflexional endings. This decay of Old English inflexions was not the direct result of the Norman conquest as is sometimes wrongly supposed. It was the natural consequence to the fixing of the Germanic accent on the first syllables of words which led to the obscuring of the vowel, in the unstressed inflexional endings of words. Even without the Norman conquest English words would have got rid of the inflexional endings as they have actually done. The only result of the conquest has been that of hastening the process of the levelling down of Old English inflexions. While Old English had varied endings for the nominative and accusative plurals (-as-a, an, e, u) Middle English reduced them all to 'as'. Similarly the Old English genitive endings like es, a, -an -e, were reduced to -es. But when the pronunciation of the vowels in all unstressed positions became blurred the -as and -es were pronounced alike. This resulted in the use of 'es' endings for both genitives and plurals in Middle English. The only exceptions were the irregular plurals which were few in number as in Modern English. In Middle English, we also find, especially in the Northern districts, a tendency to form plurals ending in -en. In the 13th century this tendency had resulted in plurals like 'shoon', (shoes) 'terwen' (trees) etc. and such plurals are found even in Chaucer's works. Children, brethren, and kine are survivals of such plurals in Modern English. Except in these, the 'en' plural ending went out of use after the 14th century when the -es plurals were generally accepted.

Though in Old and Middle English the letter 'e' was a common inflexional ending in many words and added one more syllable to the Modern English period. Thus words like love, come, etc. which were disyllabic in Middle English became monosyllabic in Modern English. For a time it was not generally known in the Modern period that such

words were disyllabic in Middle English. In fact, until it was generally known through the work of scholars like Tyrwhitt that many words in Chaucer's English had a syllable more than they have at present, people had considered his poetry to be lacking in melody. Another point of interest in Middle English Grammar is that the definite article as well as the adjective in general were not declined as in Old English. A single form of the definite article and the adjective came to be used in all cases, genders and numbers. Another improvement on Old English Grammar was the substitution of Grammatical gender by natural gender. While Old English had attributed masculinity to 'stan' (stone) it had classed wife (woman) with nouns of the neuter gender. The breaking down of the Old inflexional ending gradually led to the adoption of the natural gender corresponding to sex or absence of sex in nouns. By the 14th century all English nouns came to be divided into masculine, feminine and neuter according to natural gender.

FRENCH USAGES :

Contact with the French resulted in the introduction of certain French usages into English. One of these was the use of the preposition 'of' as a sign of the genitive sense. In Old English there were rare instances of the use of this preposition to express possession. But as a result of French influence the preposition 'of' came to be used as regular sign of the genitive case. This has been a very useful addition to the resources of the language. While Old English formed the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives by means of inflexional endings, French grammar made use of adverbs also for this purpose. English now borrowed from French this new device of forming the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives. Mono-syllabic adjectives mostly continued to form the comparative and superlative through inflexional endings while polysyllabic words mostly of French origin, resorted to the analytical form. This is seen by comparing the forms long, longer and longest with the forms beautiful, more beautiful, and most beautiful.

CHANGE IN PRONOMINAL SYSTEM :

The Old English pronominal system also underwent considerable changes during the Middle English period. The levelling of the inflexional ending resulted in much confusion and ambiguity regarding the use of the Old English pronouns of the third person. The ambiguities were removed by supplanting the native pronouns by the Scandinavian pronouns which are represented in the modern she, they, them, their. These Scandinavian forms had become generally accepted by the 14th century. The Old English pronoun for the first person singular (ic) had also become changed into the modern form 'I' by the beginning of the 13th century.

CHANGE IN PRONUNCIATION AND SPELLING :

In pronunciation and spelling we find Middle English very different

from Old English. During the Old English period the spelling was more or less phonetic and the difference in pronunciation between the (a) in father and the (a) in 'sat' was expressed by using, two different letters (a ae) to indicate the two different sounds. Similarly the difference between the 'th' for 'thing' and 'th' of then was indicated by using the letter θ for the first and the letter ð for the second. During the middle English period the letter ð went out of use and p was retained initially, while in other positions the 'th' spelling was substituted in its place. After the Norman Conquest French had become the language of the court, the nobility and the upper classes in general and English children were taught to read and write French instead of English. In such circumstances, when people wanted to write English they had no orthographical traditions to guide them. The scribes who were mostly French men accustomed to French spelling traditions, tried to introduce those traditions into English. Thus the front consonant in the Old English word *cirice* came to be indicated by the 'ch' spelling and *thus* the modern spelling of church was established. The long 'u' was indicated in spelling by 'ou' and thus Old English '*hus*' came to be written as 'hous' though there was no change in pronunciation at the time. Another Middle English spelling device was to write u as o in the neighbourhood of m,v, n, and w. This accounts for the 'o' spellings in words like come, love, son, and 'fowl'. In each of these words the o was pronounced as (u) in Middle English though it was written so as to avoid confusion and indistinctness when standing near m,n,v, or w. Old English (a) was changed into the rounded vowel (o) as in 'stone' derived from Old English 'stan'. The close long o, of Old English was pronounced in Middle English as the 'oa' in 'boat'. The corresponding open vowel was pronounced as the 'oa' in 'broad'. Close long (e:) was pronounced like the 'a' in State and the open long (e) had the pronunciation of 'a' in 'hare'. The Old English 'f' which had become voiced between vowels came to be written as v. This accounts for the 'v' in love, over, devil etc. Long vowels in Middle English spelling were often indicated by the doubling of the short vowel. Thus root was the spelling for *rot* and foot was the spelling for *fot*. The double vowel in words like food, root, boot, green, sheen all point to this Middle English device. Another peculiarity of Middle English is that the final e, -es, ed, and e were sounded in many words where they have become silent in later English. The sound expressed by 'sc' in Old English was indicated by 'Sch' or sh in Middle English. This is how Old English Sceal has become Modern English 'shall'. Another spelling change introduced in the Middle English period was the substitution of O.E.Cw by 'qu'. Thus we have Old English cwene represented in Modern English by 'queen'. Because of these spelling changes, when we compare a page of Old English with a page of Middle English we get the impression that there is great difference in pronunciation between the earlier and later forms of the language.

From all that has been said above it is clear that the Middle English period was a period of transition in the history of the language. At the beginning of the period the language is characterised by all the grammatical complexities which distinguish Old English from Modern English. At the end of the period the language has already acquired the qualities which characterise Modern English and distinguish it from Old and Middle English. All the changes in spelling, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, by which Old English has been transformed into modern English, have taken place during the Middle English period.

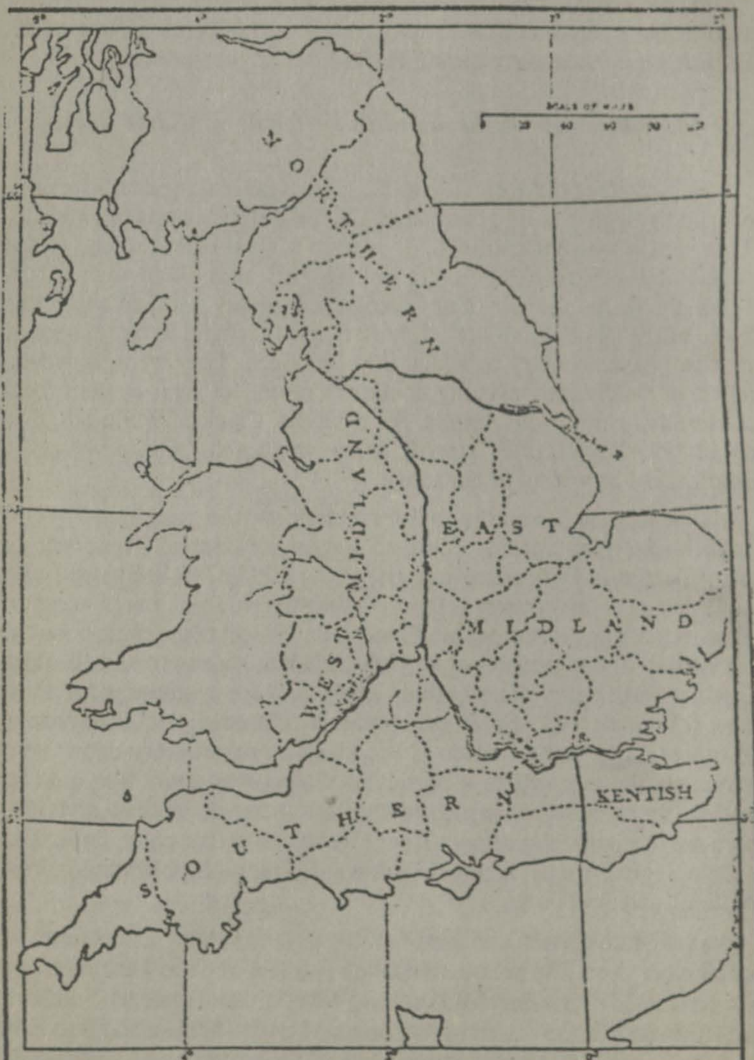
Q. 21. Write a note on the dialectical diversity of Middle English.

Ans. According to Albert C. Waugh, "one of the striking characteristics of Middle English is its great variety in the different parts of England. This variety was not confined, as it is to a great extent today, to the forms of the spoken language, but appears equally in the written literature". In the absence of any recognised literary standard before the close of the Old English period, writers used to write in the dialect of that part of the country to which they belonged. They were, however, aware of the diversity existing in matters of dialect, as is evident from the testimony of various writers. For example, Chaucer, while bringing out his poem *Troilus and Criseyde*, acknowledges the 'great diversite/In English, and in writing of our tonge.'

Middle English has all the four main dialects that were found in Old English -viz. Northumbrian, Mercian, Saxon and Kentish. There was an intensification of Dialectical diversity in the Middle English period, and the language of one country is found to be different from that of another. Often, remarkable variations are found in the dialect of the same country. The distinguishing features of a given dialect transcend the limits of its territory, and extend into adjoining areas, and are sometimes found in some other dialect too. Every author uses a different dialect from that of all others in the same region. It becomes, therefore, very difficult to demarcate the area where a particular dialect was spoken or used in writing, or to tell with any certainty how many dialectical divisions there are in a particular region. Roughly, however, four chief dialects of Middle English can be distinguished, viz. Northern, East Midland, West Midland, and Southern.

The Northern dialect was used in the region extending as far south as the Humber river. The area between the Humber and the Thames rivers was dominated by the East Midland and West Midland dialects. Southern had its domain in the district lying south of river Thames, and was also used in Gloucestershire and some parts of the countries of Worchester and Herford. It thus covered the West Saxon and Kentish districts of Old English. The areas where these four dialects of Middle English were used, are shown in the map that follows :—

THE FOUR MIDDLE ENGLISH DIALECTS



The increase in dialectical variety in the Middle English period was due to the absence of a fixed tradition of spelling such as that which had

been found in late Old English, and which levelled many of the differences prevailing then. A remarkable fact is that the distinguishing features of Modern English dialects can only be traced in Middle English dialects very rarely. Apart from the mixture of dialect elements found in the Standard English, and from the distinguishing features found in the Northern English and Scotch dialects, the Middle English regional dialects seem to have developed into a uniform dialect-type from which new local varieties of Modern English grew up. The Kentish dialect, for example, was one of the dominant dialects up to the 14th century. But not a single distinguishing feature of this dialect (Middle Kentish) is found in the modern dialect of Kent, except some characteristics that have found their way into Standard English.

The distinguishing features of the Middle English dialects arise from various sources such as pronunciation, vocabulary and inflection. Some examples illustrating the differences among these dialects, may be given here. The most dominant feature is the ending of the third person singular present indicative of verbs. In Old English, this form always ended in '-th' with some variations of the preceding vowel. In Middle English, this ending became '-th' in the Southern dialect, while in Midland dialects it was substituted by '-en'. In the Northern dialect, this ending took the shape '-es', as it had appeared in Old English. This ending appeared as 'loves', 'loven' and 'loveth' in the north, the Midlands and the south respectively. Another distinctive feature is the present participle before the coming of '-ing' ending in vogue. For this ending, there were three different ones, viz. '-ande', '-ende' and '-inde' (as in 'lovande', 'lovende' and 'lovinde') in the North, the Midlands and the south respectively. In later Middle English period, we find the ending '-ing' in the Midlands and the south, which blurs the distinction between these dialects.

The Northern and the Southern reveal more pronounced dialectical differences between them. The Midland dialect wavers between the two, and tends to bear affinities with either of these two dialects, depending on the districts where it is used. And this applies to differences in matters related to pronunciation as well. There are differences in the pronunciation of vowel and consonant sounds. For example, the vowel-sound 'ai' used in the north as in 'stane' becomes 'ou' as in 'stone' in the south. The consonant 'ch' used in the south as in 'church' is replaced by 'k' in the north as in 'kirk'.

Thus, Middle English has various differences between the dialects spoken in different areas, and these differences lead to a great dialectical diversity in this language.

Q. 22. Mention the characteristics of Modern English.

Ans. Among the dialects of Middle English the East Midland dialect which was spoken in the city of London and the shires lying around it became accepted as the standard language of the realm by the close of

the fifteenth century. There were many reasons why the East Midland dialect emerged as the standard form of English at the dawn of the Modern English period. First of all, it had the advantage of being spoken in the region lying midway between the extreme North and the extreme South. Secondly it is the language spoken in the region comprising the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge. While disseminating learning to students coming from all parts of the country, the Universities have played a very important part in the fixing of the Midland dialect as the standard form of the language. Its being the speech of London, the capital city, was another reason for the East Midland dialect becoming the standard English. Chaucer also helped this dialect to become accepted all over the country by making it the vehicle for his vast experience of life and giving it the stamp of genius. The introduction of printing in the fifteenth century was another influence which helped to spread the East Midland dialect to all parts of the country. By the end of the 16th century 'London English' or the East Midland dialect had become universally accepted as standard form of the language and this is what we have to deal with in Modern English.

Owing to the continual expansion of the British Empire, the English language has already migrated from its home-land to the distant corners of the earth. At present English is spoken not only in the British Isles but also in a large number of British colonies and the United States of America. Each part of the English speaking world has now developed its own form of English, which is different in vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation from the English spoken in the other parts. As English has already become something of a cosmopolitan language we have to cultivate a tolerant attitude to its varied forms used in different countries. But in speaking about Modern English we still have to think in terms of London English which has now become accepted more or less as the standard English all over the English-speaking world.

SPELLING AND PRONUNCIATION :

In discussing the characteristics of Modern English we shall begin with the spelling and pronunciation of Modern English, as distinguished from Old English and Middle English. Modern English has a very illogical system of spelling. There is very little relation between the spelling of words and their pronunciation in the English of the present day. While Old English spelling was roughly phonetic and Middle English spelling was also more or less phonetic, Modern English spelling often strikes us as absurd because there is no correlation between the spelling of a word and its pronunciation. The same sound is represented in different words by different letters of the alphabet. For instance, the letter 'u' is pronounced so very differently in words like cut, pull, fuse, etc. and the sound (i:) is spelt so differently in words like he, see, cleave, deceive, machine and relief. As A. C. Baugh has pointed out in his book *A History*

of the English Language, there are some fourteen spellings now used in English for the sound of 'sh' as in (shoe, shine, sure, tissue, expansion, transmission, relation, ocean, conscience, suspicious, chivalry, Asia, nauseous, and pshaw). This extreme instance as well as others which are only less bewildering, shows us how English spelling is far from being logical or consistent. Because of this inconsistency in the spelling system, we never can be sure of pronouncing a word correctly when its spelling is given, or of spelling it rightly when the pronunciation is known to us.

During the Modern English period attempts have been made, from time to time, to make the pronunciation confirm to the spelling. There was a general feeling in the eighteenth century that the traditional pronunciation was careless and incorrect. Hence an attempt was made to improve the pronunciation by making it to conform to the spelling. This movement towards a standard pronunciation has ever since been at work in the language. As a result of this an 'h' sound has been introduced in words like humble, hospital, herb and honour. Similarly the ending of the present participle has been changed in pronunciation from 'in' to 'ing'. The introduction of an aspirate in the last syllable of 'forehead', 'neighbourhood' etc. is another example of the attempt to make pronunciation conform to spelling. The pronunciation of the Middle English (e) has also undergone change in Modern English. Words like heal, meat, seat, etc. which were pronounced with vowel like that of Modern hate, male, etc. in Middle English, have been changed in pronunciation during the Modern English period. Again the '-er' combination in words like serve, servant, divert, fervent etc. which was pronounced in the 17th and 18th centuries like an '-ar' has been changed into the present pronunciation in the modern period except in words like clerk, Derby etc.

Though many people, including writers like Bernard Shaw, have advocated a thorough reform of English spelling, there are others who feel that the traditional English spelling is to be retained as such on account of its etymological value. In American English, however, a simplified spelling has already been accepted and this spelling is one of the important features now distinguishing American English from British English.

GRAMMAR:

Turning to the grammar of Modern English we find that it makes the progressive decay and final disappearance of most of the inflexional endings of Old English. Because the language was a fully inflected one during the Old English period, this period has been referred to as the period of full inflexions. During the Middle English period the rarer inflexions had become levelled under the more common ones and hence the period is known as the "period of levelled inflexions". The Modern

English period, on the other hand, is called the period of lost inflexions. During this period the language has changed completely from a 'synthetical' to an analytical one. While in Old English the grammatical relations between the words were indicated by the inflexional endings they are expressed, in Modern English by the position of each word in the sentence. This means that in place of the free word order of Old English we now have a fixed word order in which the subject is always placed before the predicate and the verb precedes its object. With the help of preposition like, in, on, under, by, to, for, of etc. we are able to express grammatical relations much better than they could be expressed in Old English by means of inflexional endings. It is also possible now to express fine shades of meaning with the help of auxiliary verbs like have, do, be, shall, will etc. which were only very sparingly used in Old English. It cannot be said that the loss of the old inflexional system of English has led to any loss of its power of expression. Along with the inflexional endings English has also discarded grammatical gender before the beginning of the Modern period. Now English nouns follow their natural gender, being masculine, feminine or neuter according to their meanings. As grammatical gender and the old inflexions have been lost, Modern English no longer insists on the agreement of adjectives, possessive pronouns and articles with their nouns.

Modern English is seen to be most logical in its use of the tenses. Very few languages are able to express the distinction in meaning expressed in English between the past and the composite perfect and the habitual present and the actual present. The emphatic use of the auxiliary verb 'do' as in "I do understand your point of view" is another very useful device employed in Modern English.

The freedom from pedantry which characterises the language is noticeable in the way one part of speech is used for another. Nouns are freely used as adjectives as in 'boy friend', 'bus station', 'radio news,' etc. Verbs are used as nouns as when one speaks of a wash, a shave, a cut (reduction). Sense, and traffic are instances of nouns used as verbs in Modern English. Another useful development of English grammar is seen in the use of the new imperfect passive in such expressions as "the story is being told". The usage came into being at the end of the 18th century and was generally accepted as good English in the following century.

VOCABULARY :

One of the most distinctive characteristics of Modern English is its copious and heterogeneous vocabulary. Old English which began with a pure, unmixed vocabulary of Germanic words, was enriched by an admixture of Latin words after the conversion of the English to Christianity. The next important foreign element in Old English vocabulary was the Scandinavian, resulting from the settling down of

the Northmen in England after the Danish invasions. During the Middle English period following upon the Norman conquest, a large number of French words found their way into English. Besides these, many Latin words were also received into the language either directly through the Latin learning and culture or indirectly by way of French. The growth of the British empire has led to the enriching of the English vocabulary by borrowings from the languages of the many people with whom the English have had dealings. Even more striking than the copiousness of the English vocabulary is the ease with which it has absorbed the most varied and heterogeneous elements into it. The vocabulary of English which is already vast and heterogeneous, is being enriched every day by new terminology relating to the new modes of living and new thoughts and ideas which continually demand expression. Among these may be mentioned the scientific discoveries and inventions which give rise to all kinds of technical terms. These have slowly found their way into common use and become accepted as part of the common vocabulary. Words like appendicitis, bronchitis, bacteria, allergy, diphtheria, hormone are examples of these. The two world wars have also given rise to many new words in the language. Camouflage, blitz, evacuee, tank, anti-aircraft gun, machine gun, parachute, dugout, concentration-camp etc. are terms which have come into popular use after the two world wars. Space travel and the researches connected with it as well as studies in nuclear physics are adding a lot of new terms to English vocabulary. The cinema has not only given rise to some new words, but has also given new meanings to many existings words. Picture, (in the sense of a cinema show) movie, screen, reel, newsreel film are all words used with a new meanings after the coming of the cinema. The radio has been responsible for the popularising of words like aerial, announcer, broadcasting, microphone, radiogram, radio play etc. Newspapers and journals have also been able to enrich the English vocabulary with words, which, though condemned at first as "journalese", have gradually become accepted in correct usage.

INFLUENCE OF AMERICAN ENGLISH :

The greatest influence on the English vocabulary at present is that of American English, the form of English spoken in the United States of America, and different in many respects from British English. American English has added many new and vivid expressions to the English vocabulary. Because of the close contact between the two countries, more and more words from American English are finding their way into British English every day. Such words as caucus, bunkum, bootlegging, O.K., joy-ride, have had their origin in American English. The uses of 'cut' and 'sense' as verbs and 'executive' as a noun are also typically American.

WORDS FROM OTHER LANGUAGES :

Besides American English, many other languages, both ancient and

modern, have contributed to the vast and heterogeneous nature of Modern English vocabulary. It contains loan words from Latin, Greek, Scandinavian, French, Italian, Dutch, German and Russian besides words from several oriental languages. Among non-European languages which have enriched Modern English vocabulary may be mentioned, Hebrew, Arabic, Hindustani, Bengali, Chinese, Malay and the languages of West Africa, Australia, Polynesia, Java, Tahiti and Brazil. English is characterised by its extra-ordinary capacity for assimilating these heterogenous elements so thoroughly that no one but the trained linguist can make out the words of foreign origin from the native ones.

English which has now risen to the position of a world language, is now spoken in many parts of the world which have nothing else in common. It appeals to different peoples because of its inherent virtues of a simplified grammatical machinery and a vast cosmopolitan vocabulary. Its powers of expression have been greatly enhanced by its varied vocabulary. Though its spelling is far from being simple or phonetic, it has so many excellences as a language which outweigh this single defect. It may be said to the credit of English, that there is no idea or fine shade of thought or emotion which cannot be fully and properly defined with the help of the powers of expression which this language commands.

Q. 23. Write an essay on the circumstances which led to the subjugation of English after the Norman Conquest.

Ans. After the Scandinavian invasions and settlements, the next great event which affected the development of the English language was the Norman Conquest. This had a far greater effect on the language than any other event in the history of the country. If William, the Conqueror, had never set foot in England, the history of English would probably have been very much like that of any other Teutonic language. It would have retained more of its inflexions and its vocabulary would have had a more preponderatingly Teutonic character. Also instead of borrowing freely from other languages, English would have added to its word-stock by the characteristic methods of word-formation followed in Old English, employing the native resources of the language. Another notable feature of the language would have been an absence of the large proportion of French words which now make English appear as much a Romance language as a Teutonic one, at least in its vocabulary. It was the Norman conquest of 1066. A.D. which prevented the language of the English people from following the course of history described above. The Norman conquest of England was followed by the subjugation of English and the establishment of Norman French as the language of the rulers of the country. When English was re-established as the national language in the course of the fourteenth century, it bore upon it lasting marks of French influence such as the introduction of large number of French words into its vocabulary, the drastic modification of its spelling to suit the practice of French scribes and the simplification of its accidence resulting from the foreign admixture in the population.

William, the Conqueror's accession to the throne of England was attended by all the consequences of the conquest of one people by another. The most important of these was the introduction of a new nobility in place of the old one which had been practically wiped out. For some generations after the Conquest all the powerful positions in Church and State and all the great estates in the land were held by Normans. In addition to these, there were many Normans of lower ranks who had followed William's army and had settled in England. More of them were coming into the land in the eleventh and the twelfth centuries. The Norman barons and prelates were usually attended by Norman retainers as they would not trust the English. The castles of the nobility were always garrisoned by foreign troops. A large number of merchants and

craftsmen from Normandy also settled in England during this period. Though we cannot say how many Normans belonging to the various strata of society had settled in England after the Conquest, we can safely say that their influence in the land was out of all proportion to their numbers, as the governing class consisted entirely of them.

The members of this ruling class continued to use their own language as a matter of policy for some 200 years after the Conquest, though they had, in the mean time, picked up some knowledge of English. Through intermarriage and association with the ruling class, many Englishmen also began to speak French since it was a mark of social distinction and those who spoke only English were looked down upon by the ruling Normans. This state of affairs naturally encouraged the subjugation of English which continued to remain the language of the masses.

The most important reason for the continual use of French by the upper classes in England and the consequent subjugation of English, was the continued contact with the continent, till, in the thirteenth century, Normandy was lost to England. William was the King of England and the duke of Normandy and in the hands of his son, Henry I, the two domains were united. Henry II, as count of Anjou, inherited from his father Anjou and Maine and got Acquitaine through his wife, so that he controlled two thirds of France from the channel to the Pyrennees. The English kings, except for Stephen, during this period spent a lot of their time in France and except for Henry I they also married outside England. This encouraged the continuance of French at the English court. What was true of the royalty applied also to the nobility, forming an Anglo-French aristocracy having possessions in both countries. Churchmen and merchants were compelled by their business too often to go abroad. This constant contact with the continent at various levels made the continued use of French in England quite inevitable.

Though the Norman kings and their noblemen till the beginning of the thirteenth century had no hostility to the English language they did not cultivate it in the way they cultivated French which was more useful to them. The high position enjoyed by French is indicated by the considerable body of French literature produced at the English court during this period, for the royalty and the nobility. After the Norman conquest, the fusion of the two races was helped by the marriage of Normans with English women and by the spiritual federation brought about by Bishop Wulfestan between the monks of Worcester and six other monasteries, some Norman, some English. By the end of the twelfth century, according to an English jurist, the fusion between the two races was so complete that one could hardly say who among the freemen was of English, and who of Norman origin.

Speaking about the diffusion of French and English among the people of England during the 200 years after the Conquest we can say generally

that French was the language of the court and upper classes and English the speech of the mass of the people. Now we have to consider when and how generally the upper classes came to learn English and how far down in the social scale was the French language generally understood. As long as the English King controlled more than two thirds of France and the English noblemen possessed estates across the channel, French continued to be the language of the upper classes. The loss of Normandy by King John in 1204 considerably weakened the links between England and the northern districts of France. But the marriages of King John and Henry III to French princesses from the sounthern provinces of France strengthened the ties between England and the south of France. As a consequence of this, the influence of Norman French on the language was replaced by that of Central French when English slowly began to gain ground and became established as the national language of England in the course of the fourteenth century. Thus the main linguistic result of the loss of Normandy by England was that the period of the subjugation of English, following upon the Norman conquest soon drew to a close and English emerged triumphant after its struggle with Norman French.

Q. 24. Write an essay on the influence of the Norman Conquest on the development of the English language.

Ans. The Norman conquest of England in1066 had a far greater effect on the English language than any other event in British history. For two centuries following upon the conquest, English sank into a position of insignificance as the language of a subject nation and its place was taken by Norman French, the language of the new rulers of the country. When at last English was re-established as the national language of England, it bore upon it several marks of the influence exerted upon its development by the Conquest. Its vocabulary, spelling and grammar had all come under the influence of French and it had, consequently, followed a course of development different from the one which it would have followed if William of Normandy had never occupied the throne of England.

INFLUENCE ON VOCABULARY :

To begin with, the vocabulary of the English language which emerged victorious from its struggle with Norman French, unlike that of old English, was enriched by the inclusion of a large number of French words in it. It was but natural that after the conquest the language of the ruling Normans should come to be used by Englishmen who sought social distinction, so that many words from it were adopted into the native language. Besides, a knowledge of French introduced the English to the rich heritage of continental literature. From the thirteenth to the fifteenth century, the English literary dialect was enriched by a larger induction of French words many of which in course of time entered the vocabulary of everyday speech.

After the Norman Conquest the relationship between the French and English—that of master and servant—is reflected in some of the objects or ideas denoted by French loan words. The English serf was in charge of the cattle and sheep and the rest of the livestock belonging to the French master while the meat from these was to be served at the master's table. Hence the living animals were known by their old native names as ox, sheep, calf, swine and deer while their flesh being used as food was denoted by French words like beef, mutton, veal, pork, bacon, and venison. This shows that though the Saxon serf was in charge of the animals while alive, their meat was to be eaten by his French master. The French origin of words like master, servant, butler, butter, bottle, dinner, supper, and banquet is also significant of the relationship between the Norman rulers and their Saxon subjects.

It is significant that the words relating to law, government and property were mostly borrowed from French and we have examples of these in court, assize, judge, jury, justice, prison, gaol, parliament, bill, act, council, tax, custom, royal, prince, country, city, mayor, manor, chattle, money, and rent. Titular ranks like duke, marquis, viscount and baron were of French origin, but the French title of count was not borrowed into English because the native term 'earl' stood for the same idea. But as there was no English title for the wife of an earl the French term countess was borrowed. The old English word 'cniht' (knight) continued to be used and hence the French synonym 'chavalier' was kept out.

Military terms, naturally, were adopted from the language of the Norman conquerors. Before the end of the thirteenth century war, battle, assault, siege, standard, banner, arms, armour, arbalest, harness, glove, gonfanon, hauberk, lance, mangonel, fortress, tower, etc. were borrowed into English. The French were more advanced in the various trades and hence all the commonest designation of classes of tradesmen became French ones after the Conquest. Among the few trades which continued to use their English titles, were those of the smith, the baker and the skinner. The butcher, the barber, the chandler, the carpenter, the cutter, the draper, the grocer, the mason and the tailor were all known by their French names. The shoe-maker was called a cordwainer or corviser for a time but the native term soon was re-established in use. All the terms denoting family relationships outside the immediate circle of the household (uncle, aunt, nephew, niece, cousin) have been adopted from the French. The words 'sire', 'dame', adopted from French were originally applied to parents as terms of respect though they are now used only with reference to animals. While the other parts of the body continued to be known by their native terms, the French word 'face' was adopted in the thirteenth century as it is shorter and more easy to pronounce than native synonyms like onl*e*te, ons*e*ne, and wl*i*te.

The literary adoption of French words had begun in the twelfth century and it has continued to the present day. The English writers freely adopted

French words for use with their words to meet the necessities of rhyme and meter and the demands of alliterative verse, because they could assume a moderate knowledge of French on the part of their readers. The French literary vocabulary consisted mainly of learned words adopted from Latin with the endings dropped or altered to suit French ways of pronunciation. When these words were borrowed into English, they became the models for the adaptation of Latin into English when they were borrowed straight from Latin by English writers. The custom of adopting Latin words by way of French paved the way for extensive borrowings from Latin which have not yet ceased. This accounts for the large percentage of Latin words in English than in any other Germanic language.

The French words which were brought into English after the Norman conquest, are of two different dialects, namely, northern dialect representative of the speech of Normandy and Picardy, and the dialect of Central France. The accession of the Angevin dynasty in the twelfth century led to the adoption of the central dialect as the language of the court and the fashionable society. The difference in pronunciation between the two dialects is illustrated, by the pairs of cognate words like catch-chase, warden-guardian, launch-lance, wage-gage, goal-jail, cattle-chattel, warranty-guarantee. Thus the different dialects in the language of the conquerors have helped increase the copiousness of English vocabulary.

As a result of the adoption of French words into the language, the vocabulary of English was compelled to reject a large number of words of Anglo-Saxon origin. This happened because language is always economical and will not retain for long two words of different origin meaning precisely the same thing unless distinction could be made in their signification. In the speech of the fourteenth century a large number of Anglo-Saxon words were rejected as their place had already been taken by French words. Thus more than one-half of the Anglo-Saxon vocabulary has been lost to modern English, its place having been taken by importations from foreign source.

INFLUENCE ON GRAMMAR :

The Norman Conquest and the consequent prevalence of the French language in English till the fourteenth century have left a few traces on modern English grammar. It is from French that English has adopted the endings for forming the feminine nouns like tigress, lioness etc. But inspite of the analogy of these two words which have been borrowed from Old French, English has not made use of this feminine ending in the formation of names of female animals. On the other hand the ending has been used for designations of persons as in poetess, authoress, manageress, etc.

It is partly owing to French influence that English has been able to

develop a very useful grammatical device in the form of an additional mode of expressing the notion of the possessive case. 'Davides Sunu' (David's son) was the normal form of expressing the notion of the genitive in Old English. Now we have an additional means of expressing the same idea in the son of David. This corresponds to the French expression "le filds de David" and is probably based on it. Though there are a few instances in Old English where the proposition 'of' is used in a genitival sense as in "se cyning of Norwegan" (the King of Norway) it is not the regular sign of the genitive till the twelfth century, and we have to conclude that imitation of French idiom has led to its adoption. This new phrasal genitive was at first applied to those nouns which had lost their genitive inflections, but later it was applied to all substantives. As the inflected genitive continued to be used along with this new phrasal genitive, English came to have two modes of expressing the notion of the genitive. The inflected genitive is now used where it is convenient that the genitive should precede the governing noun instead of following it. A difference in meaning and emphasis has been developed between the phrasal and the inflected forms of the genitive. The expression "India's history" is different from "The history of India", because in the former there is a suggestion of personification of the noun. The inflected genitive is usually used in nouns which designate living things and phrasal genitive is used with names of inanimate objects. Thus while we speak of cow's milk, man's fate, dog's tail etc. using the inflected genitive, we say only 'leg of table' and 'height of building' instead of 'tables' leg', and 'building's height.'

Another grammatical innovation which is due to French influence is of rather questionable value. This consists in the polite substitution of the plural for the singular in the second person. This use may be traced to the official Latin of the later Roman Empire where a great person was addressed with the plural pronoun 'you' instead of the singular 'thou' corresponding to the 'we' used by such a person in place of 'I' in formal documents. The use of the plural 'you' as a mark of respect passed into all Romance languages including French, and later, as often happens, this form of respect, used in addressing one's superiors became more and more widely used. Finally the singular form was driven out of use except in religious language or poetic diction or in addressing very intimate friends, or inferiors. This innovation cannot be considered a profitable one as it has lessened the clarity of expression secured by retaining the formal distinction of number in the second person of the pronoun and the verb as in old English.

DECAY OF INFLEXIONAL SYSTEM :

One change which has resulted in making Middle English very different from Old English is the decay of the Old English inflexional system and this change has been partly due to French influence. The study of

language always shows us that the admixture of a large number of foreigners in the population of a country inevitably leads to the simplification of accidence through the weakening of the inflexional endings. The weakening of the vowels of the lightly stressed inflexional endings which had begun in Old English, was increased in Middle English by the presence of large number of Scandinavians and French speaking Normans in the country. This decay of English inflexional endings resulting from the intermingling of the English with speakers of foreign languages, had an important influence on syntax. So long as the inflexional endings were in use, the word order in a sentence could be very free. But when once the inflexions were lost there was no means of distinguishing the noun in the nominative case from the noun in the accusative case except by assigning a fixed place to each in the sentence. Thus the respective positions of the two nouns Rama and Ravana in sentence 'Rama killed Ravana', indicate to us that Rama is the subject of order of the action and that Ravana is the object of the action. We can convey the opposite meaning and make Ravana the killer and Rama the sufferer by simply changing the order of the words. This could not happen in an inflected language like Old English where, whatever the position of the noun in sentence, its case is clearly indicated by the inflexional ending.

REPLACEMENT OF GRAMMATICAL GENDER :

Another important change which took place in the Middle English period and for which the Norman conquest was partly responsible was the replacement of grammatical gender by natural gender. In Old English, as in Modern French and German, the gender of nouns had nothing to do with their meanings. The words wif, cild (woman, child) were neuter while stan (stone) was masculine. Now the gender of an Old English noun was often indicated by the inflexional endings of the adjective or pronoun agreeing with it. When the decay of inflexions made it difficult to recognise the gender of a noun in this way the tendency was to replace grammatical gender by natural gender.

CHANGES IN ORTHOGRAPHY :

Apart from the changes in grammar and vocabulary, drastic changes in orthography were also introduced into English by the Normans who had become the rulers of the land. One of the reasons for the many inconsistencies which we find in modern English spelling is that more than one system of spelling conventions has been at work in the language. Some of the English spelling conventions go back to Old English while others have been introduced by Norman French scribes after the Norman conquest during the period of Norman and French ascendancy. This accounts for the different spellings for the (S) sound in mouse and mice. The spellings of the singular noun is based on the native convention following Old English while that of the plural is based on the French

tradition. The plural noun has the spelling with [C] for [S] sound because in Old French [C] was pronounced [S] when occurring next to a front vowel like [i]. When English words were written down by French scribes after the conquest, instead of resorting to the traditional English spelling they tried to represent the sounds phonetically, following the French conventions of spelling. Thus the Old English Y as in Cyssan, (to kiss), bysig (busy) and byrgan (bury) was represented in writing by the French scribes by U. This account for the modern spellings of busy, bury which are now pronounced with different vowels as the Old English Y sound in them has undergone a threefold development in the pronunciation of later English. (Cyssan has become Kiss, byrgan has become bury, bysing has become busy). Again the French scribes were responsible for the introduction of -th spelling to represent the (θ) and (ð) occurring in thing and this respectively. The symbol C in French was always soft before a front vowel, pronounced (S) and hard before a back vowel pronounced (K) while in Old English and early Middle English it was sometimes hard and sometimes soft. When French words were introduced into the language some steps had to be taken to prevent the endless confusion in pronunciation which would result from this state of affairs. Hence the French scribes introduced the convention of writing C before back vowels like a, o and u, when the hard C the (K) sound was to be pronounced while pronouncing the same C as a soft sound (S) after a front vowel as in slice, mice etc. In English, words like cyning, cene, cepan, etc. the hardness of the C was indicated by a K spelling (King, Keen, Keep) so that it may not be pronounced as a soft sound before front vowel. Where the C was to be pronounced hard according to the French convention (before a back vowel, a, o, or u) the C spelling was retained. This accounts for the spelling of cut, come, can, etc. which retain the Old C spelling while king, keep, keen etc. now have the K spelling instead. Other Old English words which had the C spelling which was pronounced with the ch sound of modern English (cild, cirice etc.) were written with the ch spelling, as in child, church etc. Except for the Greek loans like character, chronic, church etc. all the English words which are spelt with 'ch' now have the pronunciation of ch in child and this spelling change introduced by the French scribes was to write Y instead of G in those words where it had the pronunciation of Y as in Old English 'gearu' which has become 'year'. This change was necessitated by the introduction of a soft g in French loan words before front vowels, having the phonetic value of a 'J' as in gentle, gesture etc. In those words where the g was to be pronounced as a hard guttural sound (as in good) when occurring before front vowels it was written 'gu' as in guest, guild etc. Before back vowels the G was understood to have the hard guttural pronunciation, as it was in keeping with the French tradition of orthography. This accounts for the pronunciation of g in 'good', 'gate', 'god' etc. being different from that of the g in genteel,

general, etc. It was under French influence that Old English words which, had the sc spelling as in scip were written with the sh spelling, while the pronunciation remained unaltered. Also the Old English cw spelling as in Cwellan, Cwen,Cwic etc. was replaced by qu in keeping with French tradition so that the words were re-spelt as quell, queen, quick etc.

Coming to the changes in orthography relating to the vowels we see that the long sound (u:) of old English came to be written under French as o u. Thus Old English 'hu:s" became hous and mu:s became mous. This spelling did not indicate any change in pronunciation at the time and it was long afterwards that the modern dipthongised sound was heard. We also find an increasing tendency to write 'oo' to represent the long (o:) sound as in hoom (home) foo (foe) root (for the Scandinavian ro t) etc. This tendency to write the double vowel as an indication of length is responsible for the modern spelling of foot, good, green, geese, etc.

From all that has been said, it is clear that the Norman Conquest was an event of the most far-reaching consequences on the English language. The language of King Alfred, which was purely Teutonic in its characteristic, became so drastically changed by the conquest in its vocabulary, grammar and spelling, as to look very much like a Romance language. Most of the features which distinguish Middle English from Old English are thus seen to be attributable to the conquest of English by William, Duke of Normandy, in 1366.

Q. 25. Write an essay on the effect of the Renaissance on the English language.

Ans. The full flood of the Renaissance or the intellectual awakening of Europe which took place in the latter half of the fifteenth century, reached England only by the beginning of the sixteenth century. While it is true that many of the changes which are discernible in the language and literature of the time would probably have taken place even without the Renaissance, it has to be admitted that the new learning and all that it implied produced new forces and added new words to the vocabulary besides accelerating those tendencies which were already noticeable in the language during the Middle English period. In this way, the Renaissance may be considered as a force heralding the modern period in the history of the English language.

INFLUENCE OF RENAISSANCE :

The new learning being a classical one, and mainly a Latin one, its effect is mostly felt upon the vocabulary of English. While the Latin borrowings during the Middle English period had come mainly through French, the loan words which were received into the language after the Renaissance were borrowed straight from the classical source. Till the Renaissance, Latin was considered to be a sacred, and not a secular, medium of expression, being used mostly by the clergy in church services and religious treatises, and words from Latin had little direct effect upon the English language. But after the Renaissance, new words were imported into the English vocabulary directly from Latin. In addition to this, Italy being the centre of much of the new learning, many Italian words were also borrowed into the language during this period. Most of these Italian loan words are related to music and the fine arts in general. Though these words of learned origin remained confined to the vocabulary of the educated for sometime, they found their way into the language of everyday speech in course of time.

INFLUENCE OF REFORMATION :

The Reformation which followed close upon the heels of the Renaissance had also some influence on the language though its effect was mainly political and religious. The great religious controversies occasioned by the Reformation were productive of many new words, particularly words expressing disapproval or odium. Many words which first appeared in contemporary polemics soon gained a permanent place in the English vocabulary though many others failed to survive their day

and generation. England being a protestant country, we find that many of the new words of disapproval or odium relate to the Catholics. Though the Catholics too had their fund of new words disparaging the protestants, the only one of these which has survived in modern English is 'heretic'. Papist, papistical, Romish and puritan which appeared during this period, have remained in the vocabulary ever since. The puritans were responsible for bringing in the words 'saintly' and 'reprobate', the latter being given its strong condemnatory meaning by them. The Non-conformist conscience of the puritans is reflected in the words 'conscientious' and 'conscience-stricken', first brought into use by them. Their altruistic ideals are reflected in the words selfish and self-denial, while the condemnation of the puritans by the Royalists is seen in the new coinage 'self-righteousness'.

INFLUENCE OF VARIOUS VERSIONS OF THE BIBLE :

A very important result of the Reformation was that it gave the English various versions of the Holy writ, the chief of these being Tyndale's translation of 1526 and the Authorised Version of 1611. These Bible translations have had a greater effect on the language than works of any individual author, excepting, perhaps, Shakespeare. They have enriched the language by innumerable words and phrases which have become part and parcel of English speech. They have also helped in setting up a standard form of the language which has remained almost unaltered during the last three centuries during which the Bible has been the people's book exerting its profound influence on the men of all classes.

Apart from providing the language with many rich and beautiful metaphors and new words the Bible has also influenced the language in two other ways. It has served as a strong formative influence on the style of the best English writers for several generations and thus played a prominent part in shaping the literary language of English. Secondly it has served as a source for new words which have quickly found their way into everyday speech and have remained in it ever since. From Tyndale's translation of the Bible we have the word congregation which he preferred to the more orthodox word church, and 'elder' in place of 'priest'. While Coverdale has coined 'loving kindness', the Authorised Version has prevented old words like firmament, raiment, apparel and lust (desire) from passing out of the vocabulary. The translators of the Bible who depended on a vocabulary which was predominently Anglo-Saxon, and made use of a style which was simple and straight-forward, set the best example for later English writers and have thus been responsible for the subsequent development of the literary language of England. The best English writers after the Renaissance and the Reformation have been well-acquainted with the language of Holy Writ and have also been nurtured in the classics.

OTHER INFLUENCES :

The works of Shakespeare and his contemporaries reflect not only

this spirit of the Renaissance and the Reformation but also a growing national consciousness which imparts a distinctive character to his language and that of his age, quite different from anything we come across in earlier literature. Anyone who campares Elizabethan literature with that of a hundred years earlier will become aware of this intangible quality about it. The voyages of discovery which widened the horizon of the adventurous Englishmen and the invention of printing which made it possible to have thousands of copies of a book printed at comparatively low cost, had something to do with the making of modern English and making English in a way different from the language of Chaucer and his contemporaries.

At this distant period of time it is very difficult for anyone to make an accurate assessment of the word which existed in the language, about the year 1600 which was a centu y after England had felt the full impact of the Renaissance. It is even more difficult to determine the number of words which had by then entered the language as a result of the Renaissance and the Reformation. A realisation of the nature of this influence and its effect on the subsequent development of the language, are the only things which now matter to us.

RISE OF SYNONYMS—THREE SOURCES :

First of all, the new movement resulting in an avid study of classical works gave rise to a large number of synonyms. With the help of these we can now make fine distinctions in meaning such as were not possible to make earlier. Taking adjectives, for example, now we find them falling into three classes, namely, those of native origin, those of French origin introduced after the Norman Conquest and those of Latin origin, mostly introduced after the Renaissance. Though they all represent the same basic idea, there are subtle differences in their usages which can be appreciated only by one who is closely acquainted with the language and quite capable of weighing the precise significance of words before using them. Royal, regal and kingly are all adjectives connected with the noun King. 'Royal', which is from French, is the most commonly used and hence the least colourful of these terms. We have come to speak of the royal family, the royal palace, the royal personage etc. without meaning anything more than "pertaining to a king", and without implying any specific quality of the thing or person referred to. On the other hand, the adjective regal, borrowed from Latin after the Renaissance, suggests to us all the pomp and splendour and external trappings which usually accompany royalty. The native English word, kingly signifies those noble and gracious qualities of character as are associated with the true king. "A royal personage inspite of his regal bearing, may not be characterised by kingly virtues" is a sentence where the three different adjectives are used so as to bring out the subtle difference in their usage.

While examining synonymous adjective derived from the three sources, namely Anglo-Saxon, French and Latin we notice that generally the more commonplace one is of French origin and that the one having a more human signification is the native one and the one carrying a suggestion of formality and impressiveness is of Latin origin. 'Friendly' is an adjective of English origin while amiable is its French equivalent and amicable is the Latin one. The difference in signification expressed by these adjectives illustrates what has been said above. Another example may be found in childish, (Anglo-Saxon) infantile, (French) and puerile, (Latin) all of which are adjectives pertaining to something associated with the period of childhood, and are deprecatory terms. While the French word is a colourless term to signify something associated with the period of childhood the native Anglo-Saxon term carries with it a tender and affectionate suggestion even when the word is used in a deprecatory sense in relation to the behaviour of a grown up person. The word puerile is used in a far more deprecatory sense and implies on the part of the speaker a sort of "contempt for, and a sense of superiority to" the conduct which is so described. In some cases the borrowing of a word from the classical language has resulted in the gradual ascribing of a new sense to an older synonym. Thus the word caitiff, meaning, prisoner had been borrowed into English from Old French, in the sense of prisoner, after 1100 and in this sense, Chaucer, and even Spenser, had used it. Though it was originally derived from Latin Captivus, it was given a new meaning when the word captive was borrowed direct from Latin at the Renaissance. By association of ideas the older word caitiff was used thereafter to mean a scoundrel. Similar changes in meaning are noted between frail and fragile, sure and secure.

USE OF CLASSICAL ADJECTIVES :

Another effect of the Renaissance upon the English language is that it has led to the habit of using the adjective of classical origin to correspond to a native noun. Thus we find the adjectives manual, urban, feminine and nasal corresponding to hand, town, woman and nose respectively. The adjectives of native origin like handy, towney, womanly and nosey are seen to be different in meaning to these.

Just as the Puritans during the commonwealth period made their contributions to the vocabulary of English, "the merry monarch" and his court also enriched the language by a new influx of French words. As Dryden's satire in "Marriage a la Mode" indicates, it was the fashion in the Restoration period to interlard English conversation with French tags and phrases. This mark of "politeness" continued even in the next century so that Dr. Johnson complained in the preface to his Dictionary : "Our language has been gradually departing from its original Teutonic character deviating towards a Gallic structure and phraseology." For a long time it was the tendency in English to preserve the original stress and pronunciation of words like brunette, burlesque, caprice etc. In some

other words like cadet, the stress alone is retained and the pronunciation is anglicised. Words like oblige having been first pronounced as in French, have later become gradually anglicised. The pronunciation of the word 'envelope' today illustrates well the conflict between the original and the anglicised pronunciation of French loan word in English. While all educated people would pronounce the first syllable of the word as (on) twenty years ago, now all classes of people including the B.B.C. announcer pronounce it as (en) rhyming with men. This tendency to anglicise the pronunciation of French words makes more and more people today to sound the (t) in valet.

CHANGES IN PRONUNCIATION :

For the most part the changes in pronunciation which are noticed during the early modern English period are only in the nature of a completion of processes which had already begun in the Middle English period and have little to do with the Renaissance. One of those is the lengthening of the short (a) before s, f, and th, (ask, craft, father etc.) which had become fairly common by the beginning of the eighteenth century. The short (a) was also lengthened in words like palm, half, calm, etc. due to an ever-decreasing prominence being given to the I sound. Again, by the end of the sixteenth century the long (a:) had become dipthongised in to (e.i). Words of French origin introduced soon after the Conquest and containing the long (a:) sound derived from earlier (au) also have their vowel dipthongised in this way. This accounts for the modern pronunciation of change, danger etc. (originally chaunge, daunger and later change, danger). Words like chance, chant, grant, branch, etc. are exceptions to this rule since they retain the long (a:) unchanged.

The modern long (a:) as in clerk, Berkley, Berkshire, Derby etc. is historically correct, because from medieval times the combination (er) when followed by another consonant, was pronounced as (ar). The phonetic spellings sarve, sarvant, sartainly (serve, servant, certainly) seen in eighteenth century correspondence are paralleled by the present day vulgar pronunciations of 'varmint' and 'larn' for 'vermin' and 'learn'. But in most of the words of this class Standard English has already adopted a spelling pronunciation in place of the historical one. Other changes in pronunciation in the years following the Renaissance include the change of Old English (e:) to long (i:) as in feet, seek, deep, field, green, see etc. and the dipthongisation of the original long (i:) to (ai) as in write, life, ride, wife, etc. Also the Middle English long (u:) as in mouse, house, cow etc. became changed to (au).

FIXING OF ENGLISH SPELLING :

The Renaissance and the advent of the printed books were mainly responsible for fixing and standardising English spelling and most of the modern spelling conventions were evolved during this period. Except for the discarding of the final 'K' in words like music, public etc.

(originally spelt musick and publick) there has been little change in English spelling since the Restoration. By the beginning of the 16th century the final unsounded vowel (c) had become accepted as the sign of a long vowel as in home, stone etc. and was tacked not to words which did not originally have it, on the analogy of those which had. Also the symbols u & v, & i and j, which for long had been interchangeable, ceased to be so, i & u being treated as vowels only and v & j being treated as consonants only.

REVERSION TO LATINISED SPELLING :

A very important effect of the Renaissance on English spelling has been the pedantic reversion to Latinised spelling for many words which had come into the language by way of French. Some Renaissance scholars were anxious to establish the fact that these words had their ultimate origin in Latin by adopting a new spelling resembling that of Latin. Thus dette, doute came to be written as debt and doubt to show that they were derived from Latin debitum and dubitum. Similarly indite was spelt indict and quite was written choir and parfit was changed into perfect. Faute was respelt as fault with an ' l ' on the analogy of Latin fallita. The word island, which was a purely native word coming from Anglo-Saxon island was also provided with an intrusive S to establish a connection with the Latin word insula.

GRAMMATICAL CHANGES :

The grammatical changes which took place in English in the period following the Renaissance were few, but nevertheless, they are important in that they were all in the direction of greater simplification, quite in keeping with the new spirit. Among these may be mentioned the disappearance of the conjugational inflexions in the plural verbs, and the adoption of the passive adjective 'its' in place of the earlier 'his' which had been used for both masculine and neuter alike. In nouns the addition of 's' was generally accepted as the recognised method of forming the plurals & nouns which previously had other plural ending were made to conform to this more usual type. In adjectives the mutated comparisons were replaced by the addition of the -er and -est suffixes to the positive degree. Thus by the end of the seventeenth century the modern English grammatical system had come into existence and the language which had originally been a highly inflected one had lost all traces of the old inflexions, except in the pronouns. The enrichment of the vocabulary resulting from the avid study of the classical languages made English better suited than it had earlier been, to express abstract ideas and niceties of thought. At the same time the learning and scholasticism of the Renaissance produced many affectations of style and diction and some kind of artificiality.

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Q. 26. What does Jesperson mean when he speaks about the masculinity of the English language ?

Ans. Though it is not easy to have the whole essence of any language summed up in a single phrase or formula, if there is one expression, which, more than any other, can be used to signify an attribute of the English language, it is the adjective 'masculine'. The English nation is marked by an outstandingly masculine character which is clearly reflected in the English language. Things phonetical, lexical and grammatical serve to produce and confirm the impression of masculinity about the Englishman's language. Words and turns of expression which are found in the language, as well as words and turns of expression which are not found in it, serve to remind us that English is what we expect the language of a grown-up man to be. It has nothing whatever of childish or feminine elements about it.

CLARITY OF SOUNDS :

The impression of masculine strength and vigour is produced by the very sounds of English speech. We find that the English consonants are all defined as well as clearly and precisely pronounced. The voiced and voiceless consonants stand over against each other in neat symmetrical order. We do not have any slurring of consonants except in the case of the r-sound when not followed by a vowel. The vowel sounds too are comparatively independent of their surroundings and in this respect we find that the language is quite different from its ancestor Anglo-Saxon. However the dipthongization of most long vowels as in 'ale', 'hole', etc. which is characteristic of Modern English counteracts, to a certain extent, this impression of neatness and evenness in the pronunciation of English sounds. The spoken language, as it strikes the ears of a foreigner is possessed of male energy though not brutal force. Of course it could have been more pleasing and musical in sound if there had been greater preponderance of vowel ending and a more frequent occurrence of liquid sounds in its words. Because most English words end in consonants and combinations of consonants, an impression of strength is created when they are pronounced. Jesperson illustrates this point by giving a phonetic transcription of a sentence from the language of the Hawaiian Islands and leaving us to compare it with any typical English sentence.

ECONOMICAL LANGUAGE :

English speech is seen to be very economical as befits the language of men who are characterised by brevity, terseness and conciseness of

speech. This quality is seen to be partly responsible for the way in which English has got rid of all superfluities in grammar like inflections and unstressed endings. It is also seen in the tendency towards monosyllabism which has characterised the later stages of the language. Words of more than two syllables have been reduced to disyllabic ones and disyllabic words have been reduced to monosyllabic ones from the late middle English period, and the tendency has continued in Modern English. English also prefers the employment of single words to long phrases or clauses conveying the same idea. Sometimes this tendency to use fewer words reduces the elegance and grace of the language though it imparts greater force to the expression. To say 'thanks' is shorter but less elegant than to say 'thank you'. Typical English brevity of expression can be noticed in sentences like "first come first served", 'No cure, no pay', and in expression like "to meet, to know, to love and then to part". This economy of expression and the resulting impression of strength are outstanding qualities of the English language. The impression of weakness and prolixity is further removed by the absence of the definite article in many contexts, where other languages would use it. Example: 'life is short', 'School is over', 'heaven and earth rejoice'. The same device applied to syntax results in sentences like, "He would not answer when spoken to" and "Dinner over, he left the house."

SOBRIETY OF EXPRESSION :

This brevity of expression is coupled with a certain sobriety of language. The Englishman dislikes strong or hyperbolical expressions of either admiration or disapproval. "That is not half bad", "the girl is rather good-looking" are strong expressions of praise when coming from an Englishman. Similarly when the Englishman says that "She is not exactly beautiful", it means that one would not desire to have another look at her. Another characteristic of the masculinity of the language is indicated by such sobriety of expression.

MONOTONY OF INTONATION :

The even and rather monotonous intonation in speech where violent changes of accent are totally absent is another characteristic of the Englishman's language. It is universally agreed that an excessive use of the emotional tonic accent making the voice rise suddenly to a high pitch and then making it to fall as suddenly to a low one is a characteristic of the speech of woman, much more than that of men. Thus even the intonation of English expresses its masculinity.

ABSENCE OF DIMINUTIVES :

Another aspect of masculinity in this language is the comparative absence of diminutives in English. Too frequent use of diminutives without any apparent necessity for resorting to them tends to produce the impression that the speaker is an innocent, childish, genial being, without any great business capacities or seriousness of aim or attitude.

In English the few diminutives which have a place in the vocabulary, are mostly restricted to the language of the nursery or natural science. 'Billie', 'birdie', 'doggie' are mostly heard in the nursery and budlet, leaflet, featherlet, rivulet, etc,. remind us of natural science. It is interesting to note that the Englishman makes use of diminutives in serious conversation only to express contempt or derision as in words like 'princeling' and 'mannequin.'

VIRILE QUALITY IN WORD-ORDER :

A business-like, virile quality in word-order, which is characterised by great consistency and orderliness, is another aspect of the English language. Orderliness and consistency especially in the arrangement and expression of idea has been more often associated with men than with women, though the latter will have their say in the matter. In this respect also, the English language is claimed to be more masculine than feminine. While words play hide and seek in sentences of languages like German, Latin, etc., words expressing ideas that rightly belong together, are never widely separated from one another in an English sentence either from caprice or in obedience to a grammatical rule. In an English sentence an auxiliary verb is always found near its main verb, a negative is unvariably placed in the immediate neighbourhood of the word it negatives, and an objective is seen near the noun it qualifies. It can be said that there is greater regularity in words order in English than in any other European language. English also makes less use of inversions than other Germanic or Scandinavian languages. It is also most logical in the use of the tenses having different tense forms to indicate all the aspects of an action whether completed in the past or just being completed or still being carried on. Many other languages cannot boast of having tense forms to express all these aspects of an action.

FREEDOM FROM PEDANTRY :

The English language is eminently logical and practical in not being governed by a narrow-minded pedantry when the logic of the facts of the external world happens to be opposed to the logic of grammar. Rules are set aside if it is found necessary for the exigencies of expression.

This resulted in the giving up of grammatical gender very early in the history of the English language, though languages like German still preserve it. Again though words like 'family', 'clergy' etc. are grammatically singular, they are not always treated as singular, because they express plurality. English very logically treats such nouns as singular or plural according to the sense intended. This use has been extended in modern English to such expressions as 'a delightful three weeks', 'a quiet twenty minutes' etc. Such freedom from pedantry is also noticeable in the way in which adverbs or prepositional complexes are used as attributives. Thus we hear of "his then-residence" or an "almost

reconciliation" extended to usages like "the man had a say-nothing to-me or-I-will-contradict-you' sort of air. Because of this kind of freedom from pedantry in its usage the English language has been aptly compared to a vast English park where you can haunt or roam at leisure, as opposed to a formal French garden with its neat symmetrically arranged flower beds.

RICH AND GROWING VOCABULARY :

Another aspect of masculinity in the English language is its rich and ever-growing vocabulary. Men who go out into the world and have contacts with all kinds of people naturally come to know more words than women who stay at home confining themselves to a more limited sphere of activity. The English language whose vocabulary is the most varied and heterogeneous in the world can therefore be considered as a man's language..

On the strength of all that has been said above, Otto Jesperson asserts that English is a methodical, business like energetic and sober language for which the attribute 'masculine' is the most fitting.

Being a masculine language, English does not care much for finery or elegance but it does care greatly for brevity and clarity of expression as well as freedom from pedantry and logical consistency in its usage. It is opposed to all unduly strict rules either of grammar or of lexicon. As the English nation is, so is also their language, sturdily masculine.

Q. 27. "Of all world languages English probably has the vocabulary which is the most copious, heterogeneous and varied", says C.L. Wren. How far do you agree with this view ?

Ans. Any one who makes a general stuay of the English vocabulary, will be impressed by its vastness as well as by the variety and heterogenousness of its words. It may well be asserted that the whole British History 'lies fossilized' in the English vocabulary. This is because during more than thirteen hundred years of its growth and development, the English language has been influenced particularly in its vocabulary by the many people with whom the English have had contacts. These contacts may have been either deep and lasting like those with France and Rome, or brief and casual like those with Spain or Czechoslovakia. It is true that many other languages in the world have had their vocabularies enriched by contacts with speakers of foreign languages. What is most remarkable about English, according to C.L. Wren, "is the abundance, the unparalleled variety," of its loan words and "the length of time during which foreign influences have been effective in its vocabulary."

INTRODUCTION OF LATIN WORDS :

Long before the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes had left their

continental homes and settled in England, the Germanic people had contacts with the Roman Empire. As a result of this a number of Latin words had been introduced into the Germanic dialects and these words were taken into England by the Anglo-Saxon settlers. Thus the words 'street' (From Latin Strata), 'mill' (From Latin molina) and 'cheese' (From Latin caseus), have been introduced into Old English. From the Romanised Britons who were reduced to the position of a vanquished race serving their Anglo-Saxon masters, such words as Latin 'Castra' and Latin 'gigantem' were introduced into Old English. The first of these now survives in place names ending with 'Cheste' and the second is preserved in 'giant'. The coming of Christianity to England through the work of the Roman missionaries was the next occasion for a large number of Latin loans. Thus words like, 'minister' (From Latin monasterium), 'monk' (From Latin monachus), 'bishop' (From Latin Episcopus), Church (From Latin Cyriacum) were introduced into the language. Besides these Latin words relating to the Christian faith, there now came into Old English some words from native sources to express new ideas relating to Christianity. The Old English words 'Eastron' and 'bletsian' were thus given new meanings. The largest number of Latin words in Old English, however, were brought into the language through the Latin learning which came to English in the tenth century as a result of the revitalizing of church life. But only a few of these are retained in Modern English. During the Old English period, apart from direct borrowings from Latin, some literal translations of Latin compound words also came to enrich the English vocabulary. The word 'gospel' (derived from O.E. god spell) is a literal translation of Latin Evangelium, compounded of two Greek words 'Eu' meaning well and 'Angelion' meaning news. During the middle English period, when French had become the dominating influence on English, one could hardly distinguish between words borrowed direct from Latin learning and science and words borrowed from French which had developed from Latin. The innumerable translations from Latin in the 15th century had resulted in many direct borrowings from Latin. Paper, proviso. enquivalent, legitimate, index, scribe, simile, memento, requiem, collect (as noun) diocese, mediator, all belong to the class of Latin loans thus introduced. Though at the beginning of the M. E. period English still had a comparatively pure vocabulary, the innumerable borrowings from Latin and French made it quite heterogeneous by the end of the period. However it was during the Modern English period, and particularly during the time of the Renaissance, that Latin influence has been most strongly felt on English vocabulary. At the Renaissance when the best minds turned to the Greek and Latin classics for inspiration, and Latin was the chief subject of study in the best schools a stream of Latin words and affixes entered the English language. It was at the time quite natural for the educated Englishmen to use Latin words freely in their English conversation. Shakespeare was the first to use words like

castigate, auspicious, critic, and tolerance. All scientific and philosophical works were usually written in Latin from the 16th to the 18th century. Francis Bacon and Sir Issac Newton, wrote their great books in Latin. It has now become natural for English to depend on Latin or adaptations of Latin expressions for expressing new scientific or philosophical ideas. The vast number of Latin words which have been received into the vocabulary have not however affected the natural structure of the English language or its capacity to express ideas purely by means of native words.

WORDS DERIVED FROM CLASSICAL GREEK :

Classical Greek is another source for new words in English and particularly those relating to science and philosophy. A great number of the technical terms in English have been either borrowed from Greek or made up of Greek elements, put together by men having little knowledge of the language. Some Greek elements have become quite acclimatized in English and now serve as a source for technical terms. These include 'graph' (writing), 'phone' (sound) etc. and are sometimes combined with Latin elements as in words like 'dictaphone' and 'appendicitis'. In both these words the first element is Latin and the Suffix is Greek. Philosophical and scientific terms borrowed from Latin into English are also based on Greek originals. Almost all medical terms in English are borrowed from Greek or coined on Greek models. Psychology is from Greek 'psyche' meaning mind, Neurology is from Greek 'neura' meaning nerve, Hepatic is from Greek 'hepata' meaning liver and phlebotomy is from Greek phlebo (vein).

FRENCH WORDS :

The main additions to the English language and those which have been great enough to change its character fundamentally, were from the French. These include loan words from the Northern French of the Norman conquerors and later borrowings from the literary and learned language of Paris. Soon after the Norman conquest, we find a large number of French words characteristic of an occupying power being introduced into English. Terms like 'prison', 'forest', 'tower', 'market', 'rent', 'justice' have all been borrowed from the language of the Norman rulers of England. These were soon followed by words like castle, chapel, grace, mercy, service, fashion, image etc. Legal terms—plaintiff, defendant, privilege, distraint, tort, malfeasance etc.—also belong to this period. In the 13th century a new impulse was given to the French influence on English by the dominant position of France in matters relating to culture and literature. The many terms received into language during this period were from central or Parisian French. As a consequence of this, in addition to many Norman words already existing in the language, their Parisian French synonyms were newly added to the vocabulary. In some cases they were given slightly different meanings. It is interesting to compare Norman French equivalents like chancellor,

charity and chattel.

Centuries of French dominance in church matters has resulted in the adoption of religious terms like chaplain, cardinal, prior, baptist and prophet, into English vocabulary. The 14th century witnessed a great increase in the number of French words (numbering as many as 18), in the first stanza of Chaucer's Prologue to the Canterbury Tales. The contacts with French continued throughout the Hundred years' War resulting in more and more French loans. From the 16th century, French has been the source of particular classes of words, restricted to the better educated in use, or to the users of special groups of technical words. While the 16th century borrowings mostly relate to military terms, the 17th century ones reveal close contacts between the two nations in matters relating to literature and social intercourse. Dragoon, stockade, parole, reprimand are representative of the first category, while ballet, coquette, liaison, cortege, muslin and soup belong to the second. The 18th century borrowings from French indicate the growing importance of French as the language of diplomacy. The 19th Century witnessed a large number of French loans relating to art and letters, textiles and furniture, with the usual number of military terms. In the 20th century the two world wars have aided the process of borrowing from French. Garage, fuselage, hangar, limousine, camouflage are typical French loans of the modern period. Apart from single words a large number of French phrases have also been recently introduced into English. Among them may be mentioned faux pas, infant terrible, amour proper.

SCANDINAVIAN WORDS :

In addition to Latin and French, Scandinavian has served as another great source for new words in English. The Old Norse spoken by the Danish invaders of England was closely related to Anglo-Saxon. Many words were received from Old Norse into the Northern and Midland dialects of Old English when the Danes settled in the districts of the North and the Midlands by the side of the English. From these dialects they have been introduced into Standard English. In some instances the Scandinavian words are seen to have replaced their Anglo-Saxon equivalents, while in others they are seen side by side with the native words. The familiar character of many Scandinavian loan words shows how great has been the Danish influence on the language and how strongly the Scandinavian element has persisted at the amalgamation of the two races into one nation. 'Get', 'hit', 'sky', 'root', 'wrong', 'fellow', 'low' are now familiar English words which have the very sound and feel of native terms. From the Northern dialects Scandinavian words have been continually drifting into Standard English ever since the first Danes settled in England. Among them may be mentioned 'billow' (1552) 'batten' (1591) 'clumsy' (1597) 'doze' (1647) 'ghyll' (1787) 'nag' (1835) and 'scamp' (1837).

MINOR SOURCES OF ENGLISH WORDS (GERMAN, DUTCH, ETC.)

Apart from the major sources mentioned above, there are many minor sources from which English has been borrowing freely and adding to the varied and heterogeneous nature of its vocabulary. Chief among them are other Germanic languages like Dutch and High German. The maritime importance of the Dutch in the 17th century is indicated by such loan words as skipper, deck, hoist, buoy, flyboat, hull, avast etc. The influence of the Dutch artistic culture on the English is reflected in words like landscape, easel, sketch and maulstick. Forlorn hope, uproar, (both originally military terms) and manikin have also come from Dutch. Loiter, spool, groove, hop, luck, booze, splint, splice, freebowter, cambric, minx, drill are other words which English has borrowed from Dutch. High German has been the source for words like bismuth, bleede, cobalt, quartz, shale, and zinc, all of which indicate the Germans' interest in mineralogy. Kindergarten and plunder are two other words taken from German.

The Italian influence on English in music and the fine arts is reflected in words like aria, basso, fantasia, gamut, opera, piano, cupola, gondolia, seraglion, inferndo, fiasco, prima-donna, replica, studio, stanza, motto and a good many others. Among other European languages which have enriched English vocabulary are Spanish, Portuguese, Russian, modern Scandinavian, Czech and Celtic. Spanish has been the source for words like ambuscade, desperado, dispatch, grandee, negro, peccadilo, renegade etc. Portuguese has given words like albatross, cocoa, verandah, etc. to English vocabulary. Russian has served as the source for steppe, drosky, sable, knout, verst, mammoth, and soviet. From Turkish, English has borrowed words like coffee, effendi and horse. From Modern Scandinavian have been taken words like eider, geyser, tungsten, ski, saga, troll, fjord. From modern Czech we have 'robot'. Celtic influence on English have been very sporadic and almost negligible. The only survival of Celtic is seen in place names ending— in 'combe' which means valley.

Because of the contact which the English have had with people outside Europe, the English vocabulary has been enriched with words from the languages of America and the Far East as well as the Red Indian languages of America. Its heterogeneousness has also been increased by the loans from the various Indian languages. Tatto (from Polynesian) taboo (from Tongan) igloo (from the Eskimos) chimpanzee (from Africa) canoe Potato (from Haiti) squaw and wigwam (from the American Redskins), boomerang (from the Bushmen of Australia) bamboo, sago (from Malay) Kimono, harakiri, geisha (from Japanese) Kowtow and tea (from Chinese) are interesting examples to illustrate the heterogeneous nature of English vocabulary. So also are the many borrowings from the various Indian languages during the long period of British rule in India. Sepoy, bungalow, bangle, copra, coir, calico, betel, mongoose, chit, shampoo, dungaree,

are all taken from Indian languages. The study of Indian philosophy has resulted in borrowings like Yoga, Karma, Nirvana, Swastika and Atman. The language of the Persians has contributed Jesmine, azure, Khaki, lascar and shawl to English vocabulary. Arabic has served as the source for words like algebra, cipher, zenith, saffron, admiral, cotton, amber, assassin, magazine, alcohol and zero. Fakir, imam, madersah, harem, houri and hookah are other borrowings from Arabic in modern times. The American colonists have contributed to English words like back-woods, log cabin, land side, boot-leggin and bunkum, while the Irish have given currency to a new word 'boycott'. The two World Wars have enriched the English vocabulary with words like camouflage, blitz and evacuee.

From the fore-going paragraphs one can understand how vast, varied and heterogeneous Modern English vocabulary is. The words of Anglo-Saxon origin are far out-numbered by the foreign words received into the language at different periods of its history. Though some sentimental purists may disapprove of this heterogeneous nature of the English vocabulary, we have to admit that the language has gained in its powers of expression by the incorporation of alien elements. If the English people have borrowed words from the languages of the various peoples with whom they have come into contact in the course of their long and eventful history, their vocabulary has become all the richer for it. The copious, heterogeneous and varied vocabulary of English has invested in with a subtlety and force unequalled by any other language ancient or modern.

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Q. 28. Give an account of the Latin loan words in English.

Ans. Of all the languages in the world, English perhaps has the most heterogeneous and most varied vocabulary. This vast vocabulary includes a large proportion of foreign words borrowed from different languages both ancient and modern. Chief among the languages which have thus enriched the English vocabulary are Latin, French and Scandinavian. The borrowings from Latin which had begun in pre-historic times while the Anglo-Saxons were still in their continental homes, continued through the Old English period and attained large proportions in the 14th and 15th centuries. It has continued without interruption ever since, with the result that about one fourth of the Latin vocabulary has already been translated into English, either directly or by way of French.

The adoption of Latin words by the Anglo-Saxon tribes had begun long before they left their continental homes and settled in England. Like other Germanic tribes, the Angles, Saxons and Jutes had been in contact with the civilization of Rome, and this had resulted in borrowings like street, wine, butter, pepper, cheese, silk, pound, mile, mint etc. Having settled in Britain these Germanic tribes borrowed from the Romanized Celtic words like Latin 'castra' (which survives in place names like 'Chester', 'Winchester', 'Doncaster' and Leicester) and Latin 'gigantum' (giant).

The coming of Christianity to England brought with it innumerable Latin terms used by the Roman missionaries for expressing ideas relating to Christian beliefs and Christian way of life. Thus, words like 'minister' (From Latin 'monasterium'), monk (from Latin 'monaschus'), 'bishop' (from Latin 'cyriacum') found their way into English vocabulary. Besides these Latin words relating to Christianity there were some other additions to the English vocabulary which were made from native words and were given new meanings in accordance with the Christian faith. Thus the Old English word 'Eastron' relating to the festival of the goddess 'Eastru' was used to mean the Christian festival of Easter celebrating the Resurrection of Christ. Another Old English word which received a new meaning at this stage, was 'bletsian' meaning to sprinkle with blood. This word came to express the meaning of the Latin 'behedicere' (to bless with the sign of the cross).

The largest number of Latin loans in Old English were introduced as a result of the Latin learning and science brought to English through the revitalizing of church life in the 10th century. The names of many herbs

and trees were thus received into English from Latin. But most of them have not survived in modern English. During the Old English period Latin had come to enrich the English vocabulary by the many translations of Latin compound words. Thus Latin 'evengelicem' came to be translated into Old English as good spell and Latin 'trinitatum' was translated into Old English 'Orynes'. Even Latin technical terms of grammar like 'participle' and 'preposition' came to be translated into 'daelnimend' and 'foresetenys'. The influence of Latin on English during the Middle English period is rather hard to determine. At the time French was the dominating source for new words and French is only one of the developments of Latin in medieval times. It is difficult to distinguish between words taken directly from Latin into English and those which have been borrowed from French which in turn had been derived from Latin. Those which are definitely known to have been taken directly from Latin include 'pauper', 'proviso', 'equivalent', 'legitimate', 'index', 'simile', 'memento', 'tolerance' is believed to have been borrowed at this time. While at the beginning of the Middle English period English was still a comparatively unmixed language the innumerable borrowings from Latin and French made it pass into the mixed or heterogeneous state very soon.

The direct influence of Latin on English has been most deeply felt during the period beginning with the reign of Henry VIII. It was specially strong at the time of the Renaissance. As the language representing European culture Latin has influenced English throughout its history with many fluctuations. The medieval Latin from which many words were borrowed into English was spoken by the clergy and learned men of the country. The historical and devotional books were mostly written in it. As the church employed it for her services and the learned men wrote in it, it was a living language unlike the Latin of the classics which came to be studied at the Renaissance. During the 16th to the 18th century it was the usual practice to write scientific and philosophical works in Latin. This accounts for the prevailing tendency to consider Latin as the source for new words, relating to scientific and philosophical ideas. This tendency has met with strong opposition from the advocates of a "chose, naked, natural way of writing." But the practice of coining new words from Latin elements for expressing technical or scientific ideas has been continued into modern times. Unfortunately the modern coiners of new Latin terms are not possessed of the good classical education which their forefathers in the 16th and 17th centuries had received. Soon after the Renaissance there had been a re-modelling of English schools so that men chosen for education went to schools where Latin was the medium of instruction, and classical language and literature were the chief subjects of study. Hence it was natural for educated men in Queen Elizabeth's time to use Latin words and affixes freely in their conversation. It was equally natural for 17th century writers to use Latinate terms in their works. The writings of Milton and Sir Thomas

Browne seem to us quite profuse in their use of un-English Latin terms. Those, however, would not have appeared so un-English to contemporary readers. Among the Latin words which have been borrowed during the modern English period, we find that 'exit', 'genius,' 'area', 'fungus', 'miser', 'circus', 'vacuum', 'medium', 'ignoramus', 'vagary' belong to the 16th century. The 17th century borrowings include torpor, specimen, arena, apparatus, focus, album, complex, minimum, status, lens, pendulum, etc. In the 18th century were borrowed nucleus, inertia, albi, ultimatum, extra, insomnia, bonus, via, deficit. The 19th century was marked by Latin loans, like opus, ego, moratorium, referendum and babillus. In addition to those and other Latin words which have been taken over unchanged, there are thousands of words which have been Anglicized by taking on native endings or reductions. Latin suffixes like ate (as in eradicate) -ic (as in elastic) and -al (as in formal) have now become part of the language. When we speak of learned words adopted from Latin into French and from French into English during the period from the 9th century to 14th century we have to remember that they were taken not from classical Latin, but from the Low Latin which was a living language used by scholars all over Europe. Though these words are mainly classical in form, many of them, especially the abstract nouns, have been formed by the addition of terminations in the medieval Latin. A scholar of the period writing in English when wishing to use a Latin word invariably followed the model of the Latin words already adopted from French. The result was that he altered the Latin word as if it had first been introduced into French and then borrowed from French into English. Hence it is now quite impossible for us to decide from the form of the Latin loans of the period whether they have been taken direct from Latin or have been borrowed indirectly by way of French. Regarding the reforming of the Latin loans in English, there is no absolute rule save that of convenience and usage. The nouns are usually taken from the stem of the accusative, and verbs from that of the past participle. But we find the nominative form of nouns in 'terminus', 'bonus', 'stimulus' etc. while the ablative form appears in 'folio'. In nouns like 'memorandum' and 'innuendo' the gerund is seen while the different parts of the verb appear in 'veto' and 'affidavit'. 'Recipe' is actually taken from the imperative from the verb directing the apothecary to take certain drugs. 'Dirge' is formed of another imperative taken from the service for the dead.

The form of the Latin words in English and French, and more particularly in English, has been affected by the self-conscious and unwarranted actions of some scholars in the past. They made certain capricious attempts to restore Latin words in English to shapes more in accordance with their original spelling. In doing this they were taking advantage of a general feeling that the popular forms of the words were wrong. Thus 'h' was added to words like 'umble', onour, abit (humble,

honour, habit). The letter 'b' was inserted in 'debt' thereby reminding one of its derivation from Latin 'debitum'. Similarly, the relation between Latin 'fallere' and English 'fault' was established by inserting the 't' in 'fault'. The letter 'p' was inserted in 'receipt' to show its relation with Latin 'receptium'. Though these changes in spelling do not always affect the pronunciation in certain words, like fault, vault, assault etc. the pedantically inserted letter has come to be pronounced. Till the 19th century the 'h' was not pronounced in 'humble', 'hospital' etc. 'Fault' had rhymed with 'thought' in the 18th century. Among the more inexcusable errors introduced into English spelling by old pedantry are the 'd' in advance, advantage (more properly avance, avantage) and the 'c' in scent and scissors which should have been spelt 'sent' and 'sissors'.

Though Latin is no longer a subject of study in English schools a glance at any but the latest grammar book will convince us how the whole set up and terminology of English grammar have been influenced by Latin. On account of the Latinate tradition it has long been considered wrong to say in English, "It is me". Latin grammar requires that the verb 'to be' must always take the nominative after it, while usages like 'It is me', 'It is her' are perfectly in keeping with the genius of the English language. So long as English grammar was dominated by the Latin tradition, 'It is me' was considered incorrect. But modern grammar books like W. S. Allen's "Living English Structure", have already accepted the native usage as correct and thus broken away from the Latin influence. But in matters like prosody Latin tradition still prevails. Hence we find terms like iambs, trochees and dactyls in English prosody though these terms properly relate to quantitative notions of syllables as in Latin prosody. They are inappropriate to English where metre is based on stress or emphasis. The fact that we still speak in terms of iambs and trochees and dactyls in English prosody shows how "the ghost of the Latinate tradition still haunts our study of English".

Q. 29. Give an account of the French loan words in English.

Ans. A. L. P. Smith has pointed out in his book "The English Language" that "the main additions to the English Language, additions so great as to change its character in a fundamental way, were from French, first of all from the Northern French of the Norman conquerors and then from the literary and learned speech of Paris". Even before the Norman Conquest, the English had become acquainted with the Norman culture and way of life because of the social, political and ecclesiastical intercourse between the two nations, following upon the marriage of the English King, Ethelred the Unready, to a Norman princess. During the reign of Edward the confessor, several Norman nobles were placed in important positions in England and the fortified buildings in which they stayed were known as 'castels' (castles). 'Capun' (capon) and 'bacun'

(bacon) are two other words introduced at the time and they serve to suggest the greater luxury of French cooking which was new to the English.

AFTER THE CONQUEST :

After the Conquest, we find a stream of French words entering the English vocabulary and they suggest the influence of an occupying power over a conquered people. 'Prisun' (prison), "tur" (tower), 'market', 'rent', 'justice' etc. have been thus introduced into the language. After the Norman conquest, we find the church, the courts of law, the art of war, trade with the continent and the pastimes of the aristocracy becoming Norman French in terminology. The Peterborough Chronicle written in 1155 employs such terms as 'acorden' (to come to agreement), 'bataille' (battle), 'curt' (court), 'cuntess' (countess), 'tresoe' (treasure), 'carited' (charity), 'pis' (peace), 'miracle' and 'processiun' (procession).

IN THE 13TH CENTURY :

With the loss of Normandy and other French possessions of King John in the 13th century, the contact with France was much weakened. Meanwhile the English and the Normans had become merged into one people and in another hundred years English had become accepted as the National language of the country in place of Norman French which ever since the Conquest had been the language of the ruling class. Frenchified terminology now became restricted to the courts of law. Among the French legal terms which were retained and are still in use, are 'plaintiff', 'defendant', 'privilege', 'distraint', 'tort', 'maltessance'. A new impulse was given to the French influence in the beginning of the 13th century because of the dominant place which France had come to assume in matters of culture and literature. The dialect of French which was becoming culturally important, was the Central or Parisian French which was very different in pronunciation from the Norman French from which English had already borrowed innumerable words. Now a series of Central French words like 'chancellor', 'charity', and 'chattle' were introduced into English though their Norman French equivalants 'canceler', 'carited' and 'cattle' were already known to the English. 'Guardian' and 'warden', 'guarantee' and 'warrant' are two pairs of words in which the first term is from Central French and the second from Norman French. Thus the dialectal diversities in the French language have enriched the English vocabulary with a great number of synonyms or what are almost synonyms. Among the French loans from 1100 to 1300 the following words may be taken as representative of different objects or ideas 'castel', 'prisun', 'chapel', 'grace', 'merci', 'service', 'miracle', 'religion', 'werre' (war), 'bataille' (battle), 'lamp', 'beast'!

IN THE 14TH CENTURY :

The 14th century witnessed a great increase in the number of French loans. These were no longer limited in use to the educated or upper

class but had become integral parts of the language. This is illustrated in the first stanza of the "Prologue" where Chaucer, writing in the conversational style of London, employs 14 French words. During this period we find that there is a very high proportion of French loan words relating to hunting, cooking, and the art of war, in English vocabulary. It is also seen that in many an instance the older English word have survived along-side of its French equivalent with a slight difference of meaning. This together with the practice of retaining the Norman French equivalents of the latter Central French loans, partly accounts for the large number of synonyms and near-synonyms in English.

IN THE 15TH AND 16TH CENTURIES :

While French influence on the language was general and widespread during the Middle-English period, it was no longer so after the beginning of the 16th century. Though, like Latin, French continued to be the source of new words, the French loans after the 15th century were confined to particular classes of technical words restricted in use to the better educated people. The 16th century borrowings, for instance, were mostly technical terms relating to war, and the common man had little to do with these.

IN THE 17TH CENTURY :

The 17th century is significant in the history of the French loans as it was a period of very close contact between the English and the French in matters of Literature and social intercourse. One of the subjects which engaged the attention of satirists and playwrights of the Restoration period was the indiscriminate imitation of all things French by the "smart set" in London. Dryden's play "Marriage a'la mode" is entirely devoted to satirising of the Frenchified fashionable woman of the age. Words like 'dragoon', 'stockade', 'reprimand', 'ballet', 'burlesque', 'tableau', 'chagrin', 'champagne', 'coquette', 'liaison', 'verve', 'cortege', 'native', 'decor', 'forte', 'soup' and 'quart' are representative of the 17th century borrowings from French.

IN THE 18TH AND 19TH CENTURIES :

While the 18th century was also rich in the French 'entrants' into English vocabulary the 19th century was the richest of all in these. Along with the usual borrowings of military terms we find those relating to diplomacy and those called forth by the French Revolution. Among the 18th Century loan words may be mentioned 'emigre', 'guillotine', 'regime', 'corps', 'sortie', 'espionage', 'depot', 'fusilade', 'bureau', 'canteen', 'coterie', 'bellesletters', 'brochure ', 'rouge', 'liquor', 'picnic', 'etiquette', 'ennui', 'police' and 'coup'. The 19th century witnessed a rich harvest of French loans. These include along with the usual military terms those relating to art and letters, textiles and furniture. 'Barrage', 'communique', 'chassis', 'reticule', 'resume', 'cliche', 'rococo', 'renaissance', 'baton', 'matinee', 'motif', 'premiere', 'rosette', 'fichu', 'profile', 'negligee', 'beret', 'restaurant', 'menu', 'chief', 'souffle', 'chauffeur', 'elite', 'debutante',

'fiancee', 'chic', 'attache', 'clientele', 'prestige', impasse', 'dossieur', 'debacle', and 'raisond' etre' are examples of 19th century French entrants into English vocabulary. As the list above indicates, they include along with military terms, terms relating to furniture, literature, art, dress, food, social-life, fashion, and diplomacy. The two world wars have helped the process of borrowings from French. 'Garage', 'revue', 'vers libre', 'hangar', 'camouflage' and 'limousine' are among the modern borrowings.

The kind of objects and ideas denoted by the French loans made during the two centuries following the Norman conquest tell their own story of the conquering Normans and their authority over the conquered English. Wamba the jester in Scott's Ivanhoe points out how the living animals like ox, sheep, calf, swine and deer have continued to bear the English names even after the Conquest while the flesh of these animals used as food has been referred to by French words like 'beef', 'mutton', 'veal', 'pork, 'bacon' and 'venison'.

SOURCES OF PRESENT WORDS :

This is explained by the fact that the Anglo-Saxon serf had the care of these animals while alive but on being turned into meat they were eaten by his French masters, and had to be distinguished by their French names. It is also significant that 'master', 'servant', 'butler', 'buttery', 'bottle', 'dinner', 'supper', 'banquet' are all French words. So also are the terms relating to law, government and property. That is how words like 'court', 'assize', 'judge', 'jury', 'justice', 'prison', 'jail', 'parliament', 'bill', 'act', 'council', 'tax', 'custom', 'royal', 'prince', 'city', 'mayor', 'rent', are all seen to be of French origin. The terms relating to titular ranks of the nobility, have also come from French. 'Duke', 'Marquis', 'Viscount', 'baron', are all examples of French titles. The English title 'earl' was retained, as it was equivalent to the French 'count'. But as there was no English term for the wife of the earl the French word 'countess' was borrowed. The English 'knight' was also retained as it was seen to be easier and shorter in pronunciation than the French 'chevalier'.

Terms relating to war were naturally adopted from the language of the conquerors. "War, itself is a French word. So are 'battle', 'assault', 'siege', 'standard', 'banner', 'armour', 'harness', 'lance,' 'fortress', 'tower' etc. The superiority of the French in industrial civilization is indicated by the borrowing of French terms for denoting the commonest designations of tradesmen and artisans. The smith, the baker, the skinner are still known by their Old English names. But the butcher, the barber, the carpenter, the cutter, the draper, the grocer, the mason, the tailor are all called by French names. However, the English 'shoe-maker', has not been superseded by the French 'cord-winer' or 'corviser', probably because the English term is familiar and self-explanatory.

Terms relating to family relationship outside the immediate circle of the household have been borrowed from French. Thus 'uncle', 'aunt',

'nephew', 'niece', 'cousin', have all come from French. The terms 'grandsire' and grandame, characteristic of the French spoken in England have been replaced in the 15th century by the half English words 'grandfather' and 'grandmother'. The use of the French prefix was extended to grand son and grand daughter also in Elizabethan times. Mother-in-law and father-in-law, though compounded of English words are literal translation of old French designations. It is interesting to note that the different parts of the body excepting 'face' have retained their Old English names. The French word 'face' was adopted in place of the Old English synonyms like 'onlete', 'onesene' or 'wlite', because it was easier to pronounce.

PRONUNCIATION OF LOAN WORDS :

On examining the French loan words from the earlier times to the present day we notice that the earlier loans are fully English in their pronunciation. The latter borrowing on the other hand retain their French pronunciation and stress to a very great extent. There is no definite standard by which we can decide how to pronounce these late entrants into the English vocabulary. Some of them like 'envelope', 'avalanche', and 'vase' have more than one pronunciation—one English and the other as nearly French as possible. Words like 'promenade', 'mirage', 'rouge', 'ballet', 'debris' etc. retain their French pronunciation and stress more or less intact. The earlier loans like 'table', 'chair', 'lake', etc. can hardly be recognized now as French words by their pronunciation. But later loans like 'connoisseur', 'amateur', 'chef', 'valet', and 'garage' show very little "Englishing" in their pronunciation and retain much of their French sounds. Again unlike the earlier loans like 'honour', 'favour', 'virtue' and 'reason' the later loans have not adopted the English system of stress. Words like 'bagatelle', 'bizarre', 'facade', 'menage' etc. show a stressed final syllable which is quite alien to English. Some older loan words have had their pronunciation and spelling re-formed on the model of the later French loans. Thus the word 'bisket' in older English, has been given the modern spelling 'biscuit'. Similarly the word 'police' has had its accent changed in accordance with the French tradition. This is the result of attempting to keep to an ideal of correctness which is rather false and quite unwarranted. English speech has been enriched all through its history by its power of assimilating borrowed elements and making them harmonise with the real core of the language. Scholars like L.P. Smith feel that when we come across a French loan in two forms such as 'quarrette' and 'quartet', 'employe' and 'employee', 'foci' and 'focuses', formulae and 'formulas' the form which is the English and assimilated one, should always be preferred

Q. 30. Discuss briefly the Scandinavian loans words in English.

Ans. Latin, French and Scandinavian are the chief foreign elements which have contributed to the unparalleled richness and variety of the

English vocabulary. According to Jesperson they are like three superstructures which have come to be erected on the Anglo-Saxon foundation and each has been modifying the character of the language while at the same time preparing the ground for its successor. Of these, the Scandinavian or Old Norse element has been brought into the language by the Danes, who after several sporadic invasions ultimately settled down by the side of the Anglo Saxons in the Northern and Midland districts of England. At the time when the Danes first settled in England, the Old Norse spoken by them and the Old English spoken by the Anglo-Saxons were both much closer to their common Germanic ancestor. As such, the two languages were closely related to each other and a good number of words in them were identical. Had there been no English literature before the Danish invasion, we should have found it impossible to say whether commonplace nouns like man, wife, father, house, sorrow, life etc. are of Scandinavian or of Anglo-Saxon origin. The same thing can be said about verbs like will, can, meet, bring, hear, smile, stand, sit, etc. or about adjectives and adverbs like full, wise, well, better, best, mine, thine, over, under, etc. The consequence of this great similarity between the two languages was that the Danes considered the Old English language as one with their own. On account of this we find the Scandinavian speakers giving a fresh lease of life to many English words which would otherwise have gone out of use. Among such words is the preposition "till" which was used only in Old English, but came to be generally used, first in the North and then all over the country, after the Danish invasion. "Dale", "barn" and "blend" are among other English words which have continued in use because of their Scandinavian forms used by the Danes.

INTRODUCTION OF SCANDINAVIAN FORMS :

The settling down of the Danes in England by the side of the Anglo-Saxons has led to the introduction of the Scandinavian forms of many words in English. These have continued to be used by the side of the corresponding Anglo-Saxon words. Thus we have now two slightly differing forms for many words, one being the original Anglo-Saxon form and the other the corresponding Scandinavian, one. This is illustrated by the following pairs of words in each of which the first word is Anglo-Saxon and the second Scandinavian :—

Whole — hale
no — nay
rear — raise
from — fro
shirt — skirt
scriek — screech
edge — egg (as in "to egg on")
less — lose

Apart from these, there are certain other Scandinavian words which are now confined to the dialects of Scotland, the North of England. The

literary language has long given up these forms in favour of the Anglo-Saxon ones. In the following pairs of words the first word is used in the literary language while the second is confined to dialectal usage :—dew-dag, neat-nowt, church-kirk, church-kirn, mouth-mum, yarth-garth. In some instances, after the Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian forms have continued side by side for a time the native form has succeeded in crowding out the foreign one. In each of the following pairs of words, the first word which is Anglo-Saxon has survived; while the second which is Scandinavian has been driven out of use—goat-gavte, heathen-heythen, few-fa, fish-fisk, naked-naken, star-sterne, bench-bennk.

NATIVE WORDS OUSTED BY FOREIGN ONES :

But then there are many other instances where the foreign word has succeeded in ousting the native one. After long struggle, graphically described by Caxton, the native 'ey' and 'eyren' had to give way to Scandinavian 'egg' and 'egges'. Among other pair of words in which the native word has been replaced by the Scandinavian, may be mentioned:—tho-they, swon-swain, 'birde-birth', eie-awe, swuster-sister, chetel-kettle. In words like yete (get) yelde (guild) yeve, (give) yift (gift) the English 'y' has been replaced by the Scandinavian 'g'. With the coming of the Danes some Old English words have been given the meaning attached to the corresponding Scandinavian words. Thus 'dream' which in Old English meant 'joy' assumed the modern meaning which comes from Old Norse 'draumr'. The meaning of Old English bread and 'bloom' have also been changed in the same way. O.E. eorl, freónd, dwellan, ploh, holm are other words which assumed new meanings after the coming of the Danes to England. These Scandinavian settlers, in addition to giving new meanings to existing O. E. words also brought into the language many new words which could better express the ideas conveyed by the corresponding Anglo-Saxon words. Thus the verb 'to die', was adopted from Scandinavian 'deyen' in place of O.E. Steor-fan and 'sweltan' which have no relation to the noun 'death' or the adjective 'dead'. Much ambiguity and confusion were avoided by importing into the language the Scandinavian pronouns "they, them and their" in place of the less distinct native forms like he-hie, him-heom, here-heore. Another Scandinavian pronoun adopted into English was 'same' and this was speedily associated with the native adverb 'same' meaning 'similarly'. Other Scandinavian loan words which are connected with the native ones, are want, ill etc.

EARLIEST LOAN WORDS :

The earliest stratum of loan words from Scandinavian are those relating to war and to the navy, because these were spheres in which the Danes had something to teach the Anglo-Saxon. We know from the Saxon Chronicle that the English were inferior to the Danes in ship-building till King Alfred undertook to construct better ships and men-of-war. The early Scandinavian loans of this period including words like 'orres' (battle)

fylcian (to marshal) lip (fleet) and the names of war-ship like barda, cnear, sceg all disappeared soon from the language. But another set of loans relating to this period namely those relating to law, have mostly survived and some of them form an integral part of modern English vocabulary. Among these are law, bylaw, thrall, mall, lysing (freedman) stefnam (summon) erave, wi-θermal (counterplea). Terms like lysing, stefnam and wi-θ ermal disappeared soon after the Norman conquest because the Normans now had the law and government in their hands. Among other loans introduced from Scandivian are window. (in place of Old English 'eag θ yrol') steak, and knife as well as commonplace nouns like husband, fellow, sky, skull, skin, root, wing, haven, skill, anger, gate etc. ; and commonplace adjectives like meek, low, scant, loose, odd, wrong, ill, ugly, rotten, happy, seemly.

The verbs from Scandinavian including thrive, die, cast, hit, take, call, want, scare, scrape, scream, scrub, scowl, skulk, bask, drown, ransack, gape, guess, also do not indicate any higher culture or skill on the part of the new settlers. The same may be said about the large class of English words which have been modified either in form or meanings after the coming of the Danes. Get, give, sister, loose, birth, awe, bread, dream are examples of this class of words. It is historically significant that a certain number of grammatical terms, which usually are not borrowed from one language into another, have been borrowed by English from Scandinavian. Among them are pronouns like they, them, their, the same, both, and pronominal adverbs like heathen, the then, whethan, (hence, thence, whence,) conjuctions like though and sum and prepositions like from and till. These borrowings indicate how the Scandinavian and English languages were woven very intimately together as a result of the intimate fusion of the two nations speaking the two languages. The natural conclusion we can draw from the commonplace nature of the Scandinavian loan words is that the civilization of the Scandinavian settlers could not have been of a higher order than that of the English. It is equally true that the Scandinavians were not inferior to the English in their culture. Had they been less civilized they would have adopted the language of the English and would not have been able to influence it. The truth is that we have a large number of Scandinavian words in English and the majority of them are of a purely democratic order. While the French loans in English represent the language of rich, the aristocratic, the refined and the ruling class, the Scandinavian loans are of an utterly democratic nature. They are homely words dealing with commonplace objects and actions of every day importance. While it remains true that many of the French loan words have not yet entered into the speech of the average Englishman, the lowly Scandinavian words (which are mostly monosyllabic like the majority of Anglo-Saxon words) are used by all speakers of English and are often mistaken for native words. As Otto Jesperson has pointed out in his valuable work "The

growth and structure of English language".

"Scandinavian words will crop up together with the Anglo-Saxon ones in any conversation on the thousand nothings of daily life or on the five or six things of paramount importance to high and low alike. An English man cannot thrive or be ill or die without Scandinavian words; they are to the language what bread and eggs are to daily fare."

In the opinion of Henry Bradley even if we did not otherwise know that England had once been under Scandinavian rule, we might have inferred the fact from the presence in our language many Danish words, with what may be called political meanings, such as law, outlaw, right (legal security), hustings wepentake, riding (in the three Ridings of Yorkshire—the old Norse thrith jinges, third part). It was because of the Scandinavian influence that the old English word 'earl' which originally meant merely a man of noble birth, came to be used in the sense of under-king or ruler of a district.

COMPLETENESS OF MERGER OF SCANDINAVIAN LOAN WORDS :

When we compare the Scandinavian loan words in general with those borrowed from French and Latin we cannot help noticing an important feature. This is the completeness with which these words have entered into the very texture of the language. They have become such an integral part of the English vocabulary that they have the very sound and feel of native Anglo-Saxon terms. While Latin and French loans lessen the homogeneous nature of the English vocabulary we never feel the same to be true of Scandinavian loan words.

Since the Middle Ages there have been very few borrowings from Scandinavian. The occasional loan words adapted during the period are those which belong to the technical vocabulary relating to things primarily associated with the Norse countries. They include words like ski, Saga, fiord, troll, viking, skald, maelstorm and tungsten.

Q. 31. Write a short essay on the Greek loans in English.

Ans. Long before the Renascence which led to revival of Greek learning in the countries of Western Europe, a certain number of Greek words had already been introduced into English by way of Latin which abounded in expressions borrowed from the Greek. Almost all the Greek words found in English before the sixteenth century were derived from Latin or French sources. They were spelt and pronounced as the Romans had spelt and pronounced them, and not according to Greek tradition. The Greek 'u' became changed to a 'y' in Latin and the 'k' was changed to a 'c'. After the Roman period the 'c' lost the sound of 'k' before vowels like 'e' 'i' 'y', and this affected the pronunciation of many Greek words. The modern word 'cycle' was thus derived from Greek Kukklos. Other

Greek words which were adopted into the popular vocabulary and were corrupted by usage, include dropsy (from Greek hydropsis) palsy (from Greek paralysis) emerald (from Greek smarogdos) tansy (from Greek althanasis) and gilly flower (from Greek Karuophyllon). It is believed that 'pyramid' had been corrupted through popular use, first into 'periment' and later into 'pediment'. The Greek words borrowed by way of Latin during the Old English period were mostly those relating to Christianity and were introduced by the Roman missionaries. Among them may be mentioned bishop, priest, minister, church, devil, alms etc. These words, after being introduced into Old English underwent all further changes just like other words in the language. The Greek loans which had been borrowed during the Middle English period were either borrowed from Latin or from French which had earlier adopted them from Latin. In both cases they were spelt and pronounced according to the Latin tradition. Among the Greek words introduced before the 16th century we find many originally technical words have long been adopted into the popular vocabulary. These include words like academy, atom, bible, diphthong, idea, ecstasy, tragedy, tyrant, theatre, pathos, sympathy, geography, theology, logic etc.

DIRECT BORROWING FROM GREEK :

By the middle of the 16th century the effects of the Renascence were being felt in the countries of Europe. Greek had become now so well-known in England that scholars began to borrow directly from it without the intervention of either French or Latin. They found in it a new source of enriching their vocabulary and their attitude to the language is aptly summed up by C. L. Wrenn when he says in his book, 'The English Language': "It is to be remembered that whereas Latin at the Renaissance was only the revitalizing and enlargement of an already well-used source for linguistic enrichment, Greek was very much a new impulse. The rediscovery of ancient classical Greek brought a new way of looking at life to England with a wealth of thought that meant a fresh field of language at least for the literary and learned". The scholars who borrowed words directly from Greek either used the words with their Greek spelling or tried to keep as near to it as possible. Among the words borrowed directly from Greek are apotheosis, acme, dogma, kinetics, pathos, pandemonium, philander etc. While the 16th century provided Greek loans like irony, alphabet, elegy, drama, dilemma, caustic, chorus, basis, larynx, epic, theory etc. the 17th century marked the adoption of words like orchestra, museum, hyphen, dogma and clinic. The eighteenth century borrowings include pathos and philander, the former being first used by the English poet Pope. The 19th century has witnessed the adoption of words like phase, pylon, acrobat, therm, and agnostic. Many of these Greek words have entered the language either through Latin or French and most of them belong to what has been called Common European vocabulary. Classical Greek has contributed greatly to the

vocabulary of Common European because it is peculiarly suited to supply the need for precise technological or scientific terms. Its unlimited power of forming compound words and its singularly complete and regular system of suffixes enable us to form whole groups of compound words and derivatives of clear and precise meaning from any given verb or noun. In the hands of the long succession of thinkers culminating in Plato and Aristotle, the capacities of the language for expressing accurate distinctions had been perfected to the highest degree. Hence the Greek language possessed a wonderfully clear and precise vocabulary in all branches of science and learning. Whenever we want a new scientific or technological term peculiar to modern science the most convenient way of getting it is to frame a new Greek derivative or compound word on the model of those which Aristotle himself has framed.

GREEK SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL TERMS :

The majority of Greek loans in English were originally scientific or technical terms though some of them soon found their way into the popular vocabulary. Fancy, idea, ecstasy, pathos, sympathy were among the first to find their way into the popular vocabulary. The vast and unprecedented development of the physical sciences during the last two centuries has occasioned a need for the invention of innumerable technical terms. This need is met by the formation of a vast number of Greek compound words and derivatives. The name of scientific processes and inventions like photography, lithography, opthalmoscope, stereotype, telephone, cinematograph etc. are all derived from Greek. Medical science particularly abound in new coinages made on real or supposed Greek models. Thus we have psychology (from Greek hepata) and phlebotomy (from Greek phlebo and tome.)

GREEK PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES :

Like Latin words in English those from Greek have also been so far absorbed into the native complex as to be capable of new formations in English with English prefixes or suffixes. In the same way Greek prefixes and suffixes have been attached to English words. In words like anti-British, hyper-sensitive and amoral the Greek prefixes anti-(against) hyper-(beyond) and a-(the negative prefix) are attached to English words while in sociology the Greek suffix, -ology, is added to Latin 'socius'. Certain Greek elements like graph, phone, tome have now become so acclimatised in the English language for technical terms that we come across several new coinages made with these. Telephone (from 'tele' meaning at a distance, and 'phone' meaning sound) and phonograph (meaning sound-writing) may be taken as examples of this. Other examples are found in photography, lithography and dynamograph though the last of these is not a correct compound word conforming to Greek models.

CHANGE OF MEANING :

It is seen that certain words adopted from Greek have undergone some change of meaning in English. 'Climax' which indicated 'a ladder or gradation' in Greek, means in English "the culminating point". Similarly 'bathos' in Greek, means 'depth' but in English it means 'a ludricrous descent from the elevated to the commonplace. Phenomenal (an adjective made from Greek phainomenon, with the Latin suffix -al) originally meant "that which appears" and was a technical term in philosophy as in the expression "the phenomenal world" (meaning the world as it appears physically). But in modern journalistic and popular use it has come to mean "extraordinary" as in the case of "a phenomenal weather"

GREEK WORDS THROUGH LATIN FORMS :

It is hardly possible or even profitable for us now to separate the Greek loans from the Latin ones since very often it was through Latin or in Latinized forms that Greek words entered the English language. This happened because Greek was the culture on which Roman civilization was mostly based and for expressing all scientific and philosophical ideas Latin had to borrow words from Greek. As far as English is concerned we find that all Greek loans have come through learned, scientific and technical usage. Because of the abundance of scientific and technical terms in Greek, even today technical terms are coined in English from Greek elements. Sometimes we find new coinages in which the word-stem is Latin and the suffix Greek. 'Appendicitis,' and 'dictaphone', are words in which the stem is Latin and suffix Greek. With the ever increasing demand of new technical terms for expressing new scientific ideas and inventions, we find men with little knowledge of the classical language making new Greek compounds and derivatives which defy all pedantic ideas of correct usage. But so long as they serve the purpose of expressing the ideas for which they are coined, they are welcome additions to the vocabulary.

SIMPLIFICATION OF ACCIDENCE AND INFLEXION 10

Q. 32. Give an account of the main factors which have contributed to the simplification of English accidence.

Ans. Modern English grammar has been gradually developed out of Old English grammar in the course of the last one thousand years by a progressive reduction of its innumerable inflexional forms and by the substitution of a new grammatical machinery in their place. This simplification of accidence is a characteristic feature of all inflected languages of which we have come to know. The grammar of modern High German, for instance, is far more simplified than that of Old High German, which, in turn, has a grammar which is much simpler than that of its ancestor, primitive Germanic. Indo-Germanic, from which primitive Germanic took its origin, had a profusion of inflexional forms which have only been partly retained in Germanic.

It is only natural that the tendency to simplification of grammars should be widely prevalent in any inflected language. A child who begins learning his mother tongue with its variety of conjugations and declensions will naturally commit a few mistakes of grammar such as assimilating the inflexion of the less common words to the more familiar types. Helped by forgetfulness and the instinct for consistency, the rarer conjugations and declensions would inevitably be dropped out of use in the course of time. As a result of this the language will, in a few centuries, attain to the state where the same grammatical relation can be expressed by the same change in the form of a word. But this tendency to simplification of accidence is counteracted by the influence of tradition which is a power to be reckoned with in all matters relating to language. Mistakes and innovations in grammar are usually condemned by a community in general and hence only very few of them find a place in the accepted usage.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO SIMPLIFICATION :

There are, however, certain factors, which, in all languages, contribute to the simplification of accidence. (1) The most important of them are phonetic change and mixture of peoples. By the term phonetic change is meant that unconscious alteration in pronunciation which is undergone by certain elementary sounds of speech in the course of the history of the language. These changes which are unintentional ones, are so slight as to be hardly perceptible at first. But, with each passing generation the difference between the original pronunciation of the sound and its new one becomes more marked so that in course of time one sound is replaced by another.

Phonetic change affects the history of grammar in three different ways, namely, confluent development, divergent development, and dropping of sounds. In confluent development we find two or more originally different sounds undergoing phonetic change so as to be represented by one and the same sound at a later stage in the history of the language. As an example of this we may cite the two words foal and whole which now rhyme together perfectly upon the same vowel *o*. But the [*o*] in whole is derived from [*a*] in Old English h*a*l while the *o* in foal is derived from Old English [o] in fola. Many other words in the language may be cited as examples of confluent development in sounds. Divergent development, on the other hand, indicates how, under different conditions one and the same original sound develops into two or more distinct sounds at a later stage in the language. For instance we find that the two forms of the verb in Old English "i c lx, de" (I lead) and " i c lx'dde" (I led) both had the same vowel. But the conditions in which it occurred were different as one word had a single consonant following the vowel while the other had a double consonant. So we find that in Modern English the (x) followed by a single consonant has developed into an (i:) sound as in 'lead' while the presence of the double consonant in l x dde has led to an (e) sound in 'led'. Along with confluent development and divergent development we find that there is another phonetic change affecting the history of grammar and that it consists in the dropping of a particular sound when it occurs under certain conditions. We find that many words which were disyllabic up to the Middle English period, are now monosyllabic because of the dropping of the short vowel which ended the word.

When the sounds which occur in the inflexional ending of words become subject to the three kinds of phonetic changes described above it results in a considerable upsetting of the grammatical number of declensions and conjugations because the same original terminations will give rise to different ones in different words. At the same time, as a result of confluent development and dropping of sounds, the same ending comes to be used for different cases, persons, tenses etc. Thus the inflexional system is rendered less efficient. In primitive Old English the plural ending of many neuter nouns was (u). This remained so, till by a phonetic change, the final (u) always dropped off after a heavy syllable, though it was retained after a light one. Thus in a noun like hu:s the final (u) of the plural was dropped while in a noun like scip it was retained. This meant that because of phonetic change the distinction between the singular and plural declensions of nouns like hu:s was lost.

From what has been already said, it is clear that the direct or immediate result of phonetic change is to make the grammar of a language more complicated. It not only adds to the number of declensions through divergent development but also causes much confusion by levelling down the inflexional distinctions through confluent development and dropping

of sounds. When the inconvenience and confusion thus caused by phonetic change becomes too much to bear, a reaction naturally follows. The speakers of the language being tired of the complicated and confusing inflexional system turn away from it to some other devices by which necessary grammatical distinctions can be expressed. They also generalize the use of the few inflexional forms which have escaped decay and apply them to other words than those in which they were originally used. In this way phonetic change indirectly results in simplification of accidence such as we find illustrated in the history of English.

(2) Besides phonetic change, there is another condition which favours the decay of inflexions. This is the mixture of peoples speaking different languages or dialects. As Bradley puts it, "the simplification of the inflexional machinery of a language is powerfully stimulated by the absorption of large bodies of foreigners into the population and by the mixture of different dialects." We can easily understand how this simplification of accidence takes place, if we imagine what happens when an island inhabited by speakers of a highly inflected language is colonised by a large number of foreigners, and is subsequently cut off from all contacts with the outside world. The two peoples thus brought into contact with one another will find that the vocabulary of the other people's language is easier to acquire than the grammar. So in the conversations between the natives and the new-comers will naturally make use of the bare stems of the words discarding the inflexional endings which they find too difficult to follow. This is exactly the kind of thing that an Englishman who is compelled to live for some time in Germany would do. Not knowing the inflexional endings of the German words, the Englishman will try to make himself understood by using the stems of the words he has picked up. If at all he learns grammatical endings, he will learn them slowly and will learn only the most striking and the most widely used. Like the Englishman living in Germany, the new-comers on our imaginary island will adopt their own broken jargon in talking with the natives on the island. If at all they learn to use inflexional endings in course of time, they will be using the most widely used ones. The natives having got used to a more simplified grammar in their conversations with the newcomers will gradually come to use it in their conversations with each other. When the newcomers to the island become one with the island population through intermarriage and close mingling, the language of the island will in a few generations, become simplified in grammar and deprived of its innumerable inflexional endings. The same kind of thing will happen more rapidly and easily when the speakers of two different dialects become merged into one community. In the conversation between the speakers of the two dialects neither will be disposed to accept the inflexional endings used by the other. As a result the inflexional endings will become pronounced less distinctly, with some hesitation and uncertainty at first and this will gradually make

them indistinct in pronunciation and hence not worth preserving.

DECAY OF INFLEXIONAL SYSTEM :

This process of simplification is seen to have been actually in operation during the formative period of the English language. The Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes who settled in Britain in the fifth and sixth centuries spoke different dialects of the Germanic language. They established themselves in different parts of the country and the dialect of each was developed independently of the others. In the next three or four centuries the dialects of Wessex, Marcia, Kent and Northumbria had been evolved, each with its own peculiarities. Though there was considerable difference between one Old English dialect and another in grammar and pronunciation, the vocabulary of Old English was common to all the dialects. As political unity was established over larger and larger areas, there was the inevitable mixing of the dialects and this gradually led to the decay of the inflexional system.

The decay of the Old English inflexions was also helped by the conquests and settlements of the Danes and Northmen from the ninth to the eleventh century. During this period the greater part of the country was brought under Scandinavian rule though the chronicles of the period deal only with the English part of the country. There was a Danish dynasty reigning at York, and we know from the evidence of place-names and modern dialects that in many districts of England, during this period the population must have been more Scandinavian than English. When King Cnut of Denmark came to ascend the throne of England in 1017, Scandinavian influence spread even to those parts of the country which till then had been most surely English. Now the language spoken by the Scandinavian settlers was very closely related to Old English being another descendent of parent Germanic. Hence they had no difficulty in understanding the speech of Englishmen in which the word stems were almost identical with those of their own tongue. The grammatical endings, however were quite different in the two languages. As would naturally happen in such conditions the Scandinavians discarded the inflexional endings which they could not easily master and made use of a more simplified grammar in the English which they spoke. This is proved by the fact that those districts in which the Danes had settled in large numbers were also the districts in which the English grammar became simplified rapidly.

INFLUENCE OF NORMAN CONQUEST :

The Norman Conquest was the next great occasion for the absorption of large bodies of foreigners into the population of England. Though the conquest had no great marked effect on the spoken language, the literary language began to show very striking changes from the beginning of the twelfth century. This is explained by the fact that the indistinctness in the pronunciation of the inflexional endings led the French scribes, who

did not care for traditional correctness of speech, to write (en) instead of the (an) ending of the Southern dialect and to reduce all inflexional endings consisting in vowels to (-e). After the Conquest there was a great influx of Frenchmen into the country. The language of the court and the upper classes was no longer English but Norman French. In the grammar schools, until the fourteenth century, boys were taught to translate their Latin into French and not into English. The writing of English, as seen from the early Middle English manuscripts which have been preserved, was done by persons who had never been taught to spell their native language correctly. What they did was to render the words phonetically according to the French values of the letters. In such conditions it is no wonder that the traditional inflexional system slowly fell into disuse and was replaced by new grammatical devices. We cannot, at this distant period of time, determine the exact extent to which foreign contact has been responsible for the simplification of English accidence. We also do not have any means of measuring the other efficiency of the powerful cause, namely phonetic change, in bringing about the decay of the Old English inflexions. Suffix is to say that these two causes namely, phonetic change and mixture of peoples, have both been working very powerfully to the same result, which is the simplification of English accidence.

Q. 33. Trace briefly the specific instances of simplification of English inflexions.

Ans. The English language which originally was a fully inflected one with innumerable grammatical forms for its nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and even articles is now possessed often of extremely simplified and noiseless grammatical machinery. This simplified grammar of Modem English has been evolved out of the elaborate and highly complicated grammar of Old English by the gradual shedding of its multitude of inflexional forms as a result of phonetic change and mixture of foreign elements in the population. In place of the discarded inflexional endings, the language has adopted, in the course of its history, some new devices for expressing the grammatical relations, which in Older English were expressed by the inflexional ending. Thus the making of English grammar has been the result of two simultaneous processes, namely the decay of the Old English inflexions and the adoption of new grammatical machinery to replace them.

CHANGE IN DECLENSIONS :

In tracing the history of English inflexions we have to begin with the declensions of the substantives in Old English. We find by our study of Old English Grammar, that the substantives had many declensions in Old English. One of these declensions is exemplified by the grammatical forms of the noun stan (stone).

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	Stan	stanas
Accusative	Stan	stanas
Genitive	stanes	stana
Dative	stane	stanum

It has its genitive singular ending in -es and the nominative plural ending in (-as). There were also other declensions in Old English in which the genitive singular ended in(-a) (-an) or (-e) and the nominative plural ended in (-a), (-an), (-e) or (-u). There were still others in which the genitive singular or the nominative plural or both were like the nominative singular or different from it only in the vowel of the root syllable. Out of all these varieties of declension only the (-es) and (-as) declensions (-as in stan) has been preserved in general use. The (-es) is reduced to (-s) and except for a few irregular plurals where vowel change indicates plurality. This declension also has survived in modern English because it was the fittest to be preserved. Unlike other case endings, the (-es) was the only one which never indicated anything other than a genitive singular, and the (-as) was the only one which never meant anything other than a nominative or accusative plural.

The preservation of these case-endings in modern English illustrates the principle of the survival of the fittest in the evolution of grammar as in the world of nature. It is a popular misconception that the (-es) and (-as) declensions came to supersede all the others because of the Norman Conquest. The truth is that the change took place much earlier and it began in the Northern dialect.

The noun declension of Southern Old English was full of ambiguities and the same form 'hanan' was used for indicating the genitive, dative and accusative singular and the nominative and accusative plural of the noun 'hana', which meant a cock. Similarly the form 'gife', might be used as the genitive, dative, or accusative singular and 'gifa' as the nominative, accusative, or genitive plural of the noun 'gifu' meaning a gift. This ambiguity arose because the originally distinct Germanic case endings had come to coincide in form as a result of phonetic change. In the northern dialect the conditions were worse because in that dialect the ending -an was reduced to -a. The mixture of different dialects had also led to great indistinctness and uncertainty in pronouncing the vowels of the case endings so that the termination (-a, -ae, -e, -o) and (-u) were indiscriminately used. In the Durham Gospels written in the middle of tenth century an attempt is made to remedy this state of confusion by adopting the (-es) ending for the genitive and the (-as) ending for the plural nominative in place of the other declensions. When once the practice of substituting the (-es) and (-as) endings in place of the other equivalent terminations was begun in the Northern dialect it soon spread to other dialects because of the increased intercourse between the

different parts of the century following upon the political unification of England. Thus these Northern case-endings, recommended by their superior clearness came to be introduced into the grammar of the Midland dialect, which is the immediate ancestor of Modern English. Phonetic change however, came to reduce the advantage gained by the reduction of the many declensions to one by obscuring the pronunciation of the endings and causing the (-es) and (-as) to be pronounced alike. This in Middle English 'Kinges' could indicate either the genitive singular or the nominative and accusative plural of King. In Modern English this ambiguity is removed by further reducing the (-es) in the genitive to (-s).

In the Southern dialect of Old English, the system of noun-inflexion, though a little better than that of the Northern dialect, became quite imperfect by the twelfth century when all the inflexional endings came to be represented by the sound (-e). Many nouns which were originally monosyllabic had final (e) added to them by assimilation to other cases. When the regular case-endings had thus become quite ambiguous, the endings (-en) was adopted to form the genitive and plural nouns on the analogy of sterren from sterre (star). This led to a definite movement in early southern Middle English towards making the (-en) the regular plural endings of nouns. Thus Old English lambru became lemb-ren (lambs), ceal fru became calveren, sceos became schoon (shoes), and aegru became eyren (eggs). This movement was arrested in the 14th century by the spreading of the (es) form of the Northern and Midland dialects. We have a few remnants of the (en) ending for the plural in nouns like children, oxen, brethren and Kine in Modern English.

Though the Middle English (es) has come very near to being the universal ending for the plural there are still a few "irregular plurals" to Modern English which go to prove that the desire for uniformity has had little to do with the making of English grammar. As a matter of fact, the simplification of English accidence has been the result of the attempt to avoid ambiguity or to save time and trouble in speaking, when it has not been brought about by the operation of phonetic change. In the irregular plurals the substitution of the regular form would cause these to be confused with the genitive singular forms besides making them more difficult to pronounce. In instances of plurals which had originally been formed by vowel change the regular endings have been substituted in Modern English when they do not occasion any inconvenience in pronunciation. For instance, instead of the Old English plural *bec* for *boc* (book) Modern English has books. If the irregular plurals were retained it would have become "beech" in Modern English. This form would lead to ambiguity by coinciding with a quite different word and would fail to indicate the relation with the singular with its 'k' sound.

Two or three points more have to be considered in the history of the

simplification of inflexional endings in nouns. In the genetive plural the inflexional endings in Old English were (a) and (ena). Of these, the latter being more distinct and unambiguous, was preferred to the former even in Old English and in Middle English it was generally preferred to the (e) for Old English (a) in monosyllabic nouns. Thus we have "king of kings" expressed as "Kingene king". Because this ending was too unweildy in longer words the habit of using the plural nominative form in place of the genitive was started. Afterwards the same practice was adopted even in shorter words. This resulted in making the single form 'Kinges' to stand for the genitive singular, the nominative and accusative plural, and the genitive plural. The ambiguity arising from this was at first avoided by the case-endings of article of adjective accompanying the noun. But when the articles and adjectives also lost their case-endings, a plural form like 'stones' had nothing to distinguish it from a genitive singular or a nominative, accusative or genitive plural in modern spoken English. In the written form the ambiguity is avoided by the modern device of using an apostrophe as in stone's (genitive singular) and stones' (genitive plural). The practice of using the preposition 'of' in place of the genitive inflection partly removes the difficulties arising from this weakness in the inflexional system.

Besides the nominative and the genitive, the two other inflected cases in Old English were the accusative and the dative. Because of the levelling down of the Germanic endings by phonetic change the accusative and nominative were always alike in the plural and very often in the singular also in southern Old English. In the Northern dialect, however, the case-endings had been lost. Case distinctions were indicated by the inflections of the articles and adjectives. The growing habit of placing the words in a sentence in a uniform order made the subject to be distinguished without the aid of case-endings. Thus the accusative ending gradually disappeared early in the Middle English period. The dative survived the accusative for some time and traces of it are to be found even in Modern English. Though it did not survive long in Middle English as the case of the indirect object, it retained its ending till the fourteenth century when governed by prepositions. In the works of Chaucer the dative endings appears rarely in phrases like "on live" (modern 'alive'). The word alive has a 'v' in it because it is derived from "on life" of Old English where 'life' is in the dative. The nominative case, "lif" is represented in Modern English by "life". The Old English dative from life on the other hand is represented by '-live' in Modern English 'alive' because the presence of the final (e) caused the 'f' between the vowels to be changed into (v) in pronunciation. There is a survival of the Old English dative plural in the adverb 'whilom'. Here the Old English case ending still remains because the dative case is clearly indicated by the meaning of the word

The case inflection of pronouns has been better preserved than that of nouns. As personal pronouns are more often used than individual nouns

the use of the case distinction in pronouns becomes a matter of fixed habit. Even in Old English the dative and accusative had become levelled under one form for the pronouns of the first and second persons in the singular and plural shown below :

Ist person

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	ic	*us*
Accusative	me	*us*
Genitive	m*i*n	*ure*
Dative	m*e*	*us*

2nd person

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	th*u*	*ge*
Accusative	th*e*	*geow*
Genitive	th*i*n	*geower*
Dative	th*e*	*geow*

In Middle English these two cases become confused together in the third person also. Out of the two cases in the third person the dative case (him) is the one which has survived in Modern English. The Old English masculine accusative 'hine' is now preserved only in the 'un' of the south western dialects where we hear "I see un" instead of "I see him."

The disuse of inflexions, mainly resulting from the admixture of a foreign element in the population had led to another momentous change in the history of English Grammar. This is the substitution of natural gender in place of the grammatical gender which still prevails in many other languages descended from Indo European. When the simplification of accidence made the adjective and article indeclinable, the only means of indicating the gender of a noun was by the choice of the pronouns, referring to it. This naturally led to the use of the pronouns, he, she or it with strict reference to the meaning of the nouns indicated by them. Thus natural gender began to be substituted for grammatical gender by the year 1000. Two centuries later, we see from the "Ormulum" written in the East Midlan l Dialect, that gender in English nouns had come to be entirely depen.ent on meaning.

We find a few traces of the old grammatical ending for the adjectives in the writing of Chaucer. The plural was indicated by a final (e) and an adjective ended in an [e] when preceded by an article or other defining word. But in the following century these endings soon disappeared because of a tendency to reduce the number of syllables in a word wherever possible. The movement towards monosyllabism continued even into the nineteenth century. Because of the shortening tendency, all disyllabic words which in Chaucer's English ended in a short vowel, have now become monosyllabic. Words like come, love etc. were all

disyllabic in Chaucer.

The simplification of English accidence has not always been the result of the instinct for regularity. Very often the desire for regularity has not been strong enough to counteract the respect for tradition when supported by the preference for what is easier to pronounce. Respect for tradition has allowed most of the strong verbs of Old English to retain their regular forms. At the same time in the modern forms dug, stuck we have two instances of a new strong conjugation in place of the Old weak forms digged, sticked. The modern forms have replaced the older ones because they are easier to pronounce. The desire for uniformity is reflected in the levelling down of the distinctions between the singular and plural forms of the strong preterites. While in Old English one wrote "ic sang" "we sungon" modern English has the same 'sang' in both singular and plural.

One more feature in the simplification of English accidence remains to be mentioned. It is that the subjunctive mood has practically disappeared in modern English usage. Old English gave great importance to the subjunctive mood and it had its inflexion different from those of the indicative mood. Apart from the forms 'be' and 'were' the only remaining trace of the subjunctive is seen in the omission of the final (s) in the third person singular of verb. Even this is rapidly going out of use and very soon the only trace of the subjunctive will be the single form 'were' which serves a useful purpose even now.

Q. 34. What consequences did the fixing of the Germanic accent have on the simplification of accidençe in English ?

Ans. By a comparative study of the languages which are known to have been descended from the parent language, Indo-Germanic, philologists have been able to identify the characteristics of each of the languages which owe their origin to this common ancestor. Whatever the way in which the differences among the Indo-European or Indo-Germanic languages arose, it is possible to have them classified on these basis of differences. Taking into consideration the linguistic features which are common to some of them but are not shared by all, we can have two broad divisions of the Indo-European family known as the 'centum' group and the 'satem' group. The centum group or western group includes languages like Italic, Hellenic, Celtic and Germanic while the satem group or eastern group includes languages like Indo-Iranian, Armenian, and Balto-Slavonic.

Germanic which is thus seen to be a member of the western branch of Indo-European, is the language from which English has descended. Languages of the Germanic group are distinguished from other Indo-European languages by certain common characteristics. The most

important of these distinguishing features of Germanic are the series of sound changes known as the Great Consonant Shift, its verbal system and the fixing of the Germanic accent. It is with the last of these and its far reaching consequences on languages like English which are descended from Germanic, that we are dealing here.

In parent language Indo-Germanic and its descendents other than Germanic, the accent was free or variable. In other words it could be on different parts of a word according to context and meaning. For example, in the Indo-Germanic forms of the first two stems of the O.E. verb 'weorthan' we have 'wer't' with accent preceding the (t) sound while in the third and fourth stems of the same word (Indo-Germanic wrt'um) the accent follows the (t) sound. This results in the occurrence of two different kinds of sound changes in the first two stems and the last two stems of this verb in Germanic and consequently in O.E. (O.E. weorthan, wearth, wurdon, worden). In primitive Germanic before it was differentiated into its three branches, the Indo-Germanic variable accent had been replaced by a fixed one resting regularly upon a particular syllable of each word. In general the Germanic accent fell on the root syllable of each word. However in some nouns and adjectives and in verbs derived from either of these, it fell on the first syllable of the word whether it was the root or the prefix.

The fixing of Germanic accent has been of far-reaching consequences in the history of the language even more than the great consonant shift. The fixing of the accent on the first syllable of a word makes the following syllable or syllables to be pronounced with a more indistinct of blurred utterance. This results gradually in the loss of the last syllable in pronunciation in many words. This makes them shorter than their Indo-Germanic ancestors. Thus the fixing of the Germanic accent on the first syllable of a word has been primarily responsible for the gradual decay of the inflexional endings in O.E. which is descended from Germanic. Indistinctness in the pronunciation of the inflexional endings like -an, -en,-on,-um etc. makes them to be pronounced alike at first and the confusion arising out of this causes the originally distinct inflexional endings to be discarded altogether. The simplification of accidence resulting from the gradual loss of the O.E. inflexional endings is a very important feature of the English language.

This process of simplification can be said to have begun in common Germanic with the fixing of the Germanic accent on the first syllable of each word. But for this most English words would have been considerable longer in pronunciation containing more of distinctly pronounced syllables. The inflexional endings would, in all probability, have remained in use had they not been discarded as the ultimate result of the fixing of the Indo-Germanic accent. This would have made the study of English accidence more difficult and complicated. Hence it may be said that because of the far-reaching consequence of the fixing of the Germanic

accent in common Germanic, English words have become much shorter and English accidence much more simplified.

Q. 35. Give an account of the new grammatical material introduced into English to perform the functions of the discarded Old English inflexions.

Ans. In telling the story of the making of modern English grammar we have to take into consideration two processes which have been going on almost simultaneously. One of these has been the gradual shedding of the Old English inflexion and the other has been the introduction of new grammatical material to serve the needs of expression in those cases where the old inflexional system has become decayed and inefficient, as well as in those where the old machinery has been inadequate right from the beginning. Of these two processes it cannot be said that one has preceded or followed the other. It would be more correct to say that each of these processes, namely, the simplification of accidence and the adoption of new grammatical machinery to perform the functions of the discarded inflexions, has at once been the cause and the effect of the other

SOURCES OF NEW GRAMMATICAL MATERIAL :

Analysing the sources from which new grammatical material has been adopted for improving the expressive powers of the language, we first of all come upon the Scandinavian pronouns, they, them, their and she. About the source of the pronoun 'she', there is some dispute. But there is good reason to suppose that the form is in some way connected with the Old Norse feminine demonstratives su and sia which often functioned as personal pronouns. English is perhaps unexampled in the way in which it has enriched not only its vocabulary, but also its grammatical system by borrowing from other tongues. Certain peculiar circumstances in the history of the English people have led to their adopting the pronouns listed above, from Scandinavian. When the danes or Northmen speaking the Scandinavian language, Old Norse invaded the country and settled down by the side of the English, they soon merged into the native population because they also belonged to the Germanic stock from which the ancestors of the English people had come. When the two peoples mingled closely together it was seen that their languages had developed out of the same ancestor. Common Germanic had many words and word-stems in common. It was not at all difficult for the two peoples to understand each other's language. In those parts of England which were largely inhabited by the Danes the native pronouns soon came to be supplanted by the Scandinavian ones because of their greater clearness which made them more acceptable than the English ones to the native and Scandinavian speakers alike. This can be easily understood by comparing the Old English pronominal forms given below, with the

Scandinavian, she, they, them and their:—

	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All Genders
Nominative	h*e*	heo, h*ie*, h*i*	hit	h*ie*, h*i*.
Accusative	hine	h*ie*, h*i*	hit	h*is*, h*i*.
Genitive	his	hire	his	h*eo*ra
Dative	him	hire	him	heom

From these inflexional forms for the Old English pronouns he, she and it, we find that words for h*e*, she and it were almost alike. In fact, phonetic change caused them all to be represented in Southern Old English by the same form h*e*. Similarly the same form 'here' derived from hire and h*e*ora, came to stand for the genitive and dative singular (her) and the genitive plural (their). The language had no means of remedying this ambiguity of forms from its own resources. After the Danes had settled down in the northern parts of England, the Scandinavian pronouns which are represented by the modern she, they, them and their, were used in those parts in place of the Old English ones. Because of their greater clearness these forms soon spread from the north and north east midland districts (mostly inhabited by the Danes) to other parts of England. But the progress of these northern forms was rather slow. In Chaucer we come across the singular nominative she, but at the same time 'her' is used for the genitive, dative, and accusative of the feminine singular and the genitive plural. In such conditions the introduction of the Scandinavian form she, they, them and their was a great improvement, and the speakers of English did not hesitate in taking advantage of this.

IMPROVEMENT IN PRENOMINAL SYSTEM :

In certain other respects also English has improved its prenominal system in the course of its history. Old English had only one form (his) representing the possessive case of the masculine and neuter pronouns in the singular. There was nothing wrong with this so long as gender was merely a question of grammar. But when grammatical gender was replaced by natural gender it was felt that the same pronoun could no longer be used for animate and inanimate things. In the Bible of 1611 we find that 'her' is used as the possessive pronoun corresponding to the neuter gender hit (it) where a male personification was felt to be inappropriate. The Old form 'his' still continued to be used generally as the possessive form of 'it'. From the fourteenth century we find "it" being used in the North West Midland writings as the possessive pronoun too. This use still survives in the dialects. Shakespeare too has used 'it' as a possessive occasionally. In the *Winter's Tale* we have the passage (go to it grandam, and it grandam shall give it a plum). In the first two instances here, modern English would use its in this passage. The Bible of 1611 does not use 'its' in any passage. On the other hand we find 'it' being used as the possessive form. The first writer to use the form 'its' was the

foreigner, Florio, who used it in 1598. It is also frequently used in his later works. By the seventeenth century 'its' came to be generally used as the possessive form corresponding to 'it' though some people still felt that the older his or her was more appropriate.

In accordance with the English tendency towards shortening, the final 'n' in unstressed monosyllabic words was often dropped. This has been of some benefit to the pronominal system of the language, because it has brought about the difference between the attributive possessive and the absolute possessive. The original forms of the possessive pronouns are retained in what are known as absolute possessives, as in "This house is mine", "The fault is thine," etc. In the examples "This is my house", "This is thy fault" we have the shortened forms of the possessive which are now more commonly used than the original mine, thine etc. in the attributive sense. Except in poetic or archaic language, we no longer come across expressions like mine uncle, thine heir etc. though the original possessive forms had long continued in use before nouns beginning with 'h' or a vowel. In Modern English absolute possessive forms are created by tacking on the possessives of nouns to the ordinary pronouns. Thus absolute possessives like yours, hers, theirs are created, out of the possessive forms like your, her, their. If the literary language had retained the old absolute possessive 'his' it would have been better, but somehow it has dropped out of use and 'his' is now used as the attributive and absolute pronoun.

The superior position enjoyed by the French language in England from the Norman conquest to the fourteenth century has left only very few traces on the English grammar. One of these consists in the borrowing of the suffix [ess] from French as the feminine ending for the designations of persons. This feminine ending, though freely used in English for the formation of new feminine nouns like stewardess, manageress etc. is now similarly used for forming the names of female animals (Nouns like tigress, lioness etc. have been borrowed from Old French). A useful grammatical innovation, which has been mainly due to French influence, is the additional mode of expressing the notion of the possessive case. We can say now "the name of the boy is Gopal" instead of "The boy's name is Gopal." This mode of expressing the notion of the genitive was not common in Old English. The preposition "of" was used in Old English in those contexts where we would now use 'from' or 'out of'. This corresponds to the French 'do' as in 'Simon de Mont forte'. However there were a few cases where "of" was used in a genitive sense in Old English. "Se cyning of Norwegan" meant "the King of Norway." The use of this preposition in a genitival sense is first seen in the twelfth century writing. In all probability the use of 'of' in the possessive sense would have been evolved as a means of doing away with the ambiguities arising from the decayed "inflexional system" even if no French influence were exerted on the language. However we have to admit that this usage

gained wide currency because of the imitation of French idiom. Nouns borrowed from French generally followed the French pattern of forming the genitive and the new device of forming the genitive was used in the case of nouns whose inflexional endings had become dacayed, and indistinct. Finally the 'phrasal genitive' with 'of' came to be applicable in the case of all nouns along with the inflected dative. Thus it has added to the expressive powers of the language. The inflected genitive, with the [s-] ending is now used in those cases where convenience requires that the genitive should precede the governing noun instead of following it. Thus a difference in meaning and emphasis is developed between the inflected and the phrasal genitive. Because modern English possesses both these ways of expressing the genitive, it has better powers of expression than languages like French or Latin.

GROUP GENITIVES :

The possessive ending (s) which is immediately followed by the governing noun (except when an adjective or an adjective qualified by an adverb intervenes) is treated in modern English almost like a separable word or 'postposition' which could be tacked on to any word or descriptive phrase or clause. Thus we can speak of "the Duke of Wellington's daughters". One can also say, at least colloquially, "that is-the-man-I-met-at-Bombay." In the first instance "that Duke of Wellington" and in the second "that man I met at Bombay" are considered as single words and the inflexional (s) is tacked on to them. This group-genitive as it is called, is a useful addition to the resources of the language, since it serves to express the idea more directly and forcibly than the synonymous form with of. On the analogy of this group genitive a group plural is also used in conversation as when we speak of "The two Miss Austens".

SUBSTITUTION OF PLURAL FOR THE SINGULAR :

The polite substitution of the plural for the singular in the second person is another grammatical innovation due to French influence. This usage is based on the official Latin custom of addressing a person of state with 'you', instead of 'thou' just as in formal documents such a person wrote 'we' instead of 'I'. It is generally observed that forms of politeness used originally in addressing superiors have a tendency to become more and more widely applied. The use of the plural 'you' as a mark of respect, has passed into all the European languages, the singular form 'thou' being retained only in a poetic or religious language. In English we find that the singular form has practically gone out of use. Unfortunately the surviving form 'you' as a mark of respect, has passed into all the European languages, the singular form 'thou' being retained only in a poetic or religious language. In English we find that the singular form has practically gone out of use. Unfortunately the surviving for 'you' is ambiguous as it can be used for the singular and plural. We have to admit that the language is definitely poorer for having discarded the

formal distinction of number in the second person of the pronoun and the verb.

ATTRIBUTIVE USE OF THE SUBSTANTIVE :

A very useful grammatical innovation which has been introduced into the language since Old English days is what is known as the attributive use of the substantive as in "my doctor friend", "the Hindu Law Amendment Act", "The Cochin Express" etc. In most other European languages adjectives or circumlocutory expressions will have to be used in the place of attributive nouns used in English, while in German the attributive combinations would be changed into compound nouns. The attributive use of the substantive in English has developed out of the Old English compound nouns in which the accent of the word was on the first element, thereby limiting the sense of the second element to a special application. Thus we have book-case, water-pot and school-house, in which the first element of the combination has an adjective or possessive sense. This made the two elements of the compound to be treated as separate words in Middle English and each was pronounced with its independent accent. Thus the attributive substantive was born. The attributive use of the substantive has increased the flexibility and compactness of the language. We can now use a whole complex phrase attributively as in the sentence:—"The man was smoking his before-break-fast pipe".

EXTENDED USE OF AUXILIARIES :

The extended use of auxiliaries in the conjugation of verbs is another useful addition to the resources of the English language during the last one thousand years. In old English distinctions of tenses were very imperfectly expressed. There were only two tenses, a present, which served also as a future and a past. By using certain verbs as auxiliaries, Old English had supplemented its imperfect verbal system. The verb, which expressed debt or obligation (sceal) and the one which expressed wish or intention (wile) were figuratively used at first when it became necessary to designate an event as future. The frequent figurative use of these words led to their being used as mere signs of the future tense. When it was desired to express simply and briefly the sense of the perfect or the pluperfect, the present or past of the verb 'to have' was combined with the passive participle. From being used like this, the combination of 'have' with a participle came to be employed as a compound tense, expressing the sense of the perfect or pluperfect. In Old English the participle in such cases agreed like an adjective, with the object noun but later it was made indeclinable. From the fourteenth century it became customary to put the object after the participle. In the case of intransitive verbs the verb 'to be' was combined with the participle to express the sense of the perfect and pluperfect. We still have this usage in sentences like "The city is fallen," "The task is accomplished" etc.

This use of the auxiliary verb in Old English was a grammatical device capable of being greatly developed as an instrument of expression. By conjugating the auxiliary verbs through their simple and compound tenses, the language, in course of time, has developed a verbal system capable of expressing every shade of meaning which could be conveyed by the verbal inflexions of any language. The increasing need for accuracy of expression brought about by the growing literary use of the language, gradually resulted in the full use of auxiliaries which lay ready to hand.

DEVELOPMENT OF VERBAL FORMS :

We cannot help noticing the many changes which have taken place during the last three centuries in the development of the English verbal forms and their uses have all been working towards increase of clearness in expression. This can be illustrated by studying the history of the most common auxiliaries like "to be"; "to do" etc. In Old English the past continuous form like "he was going" was in use, though the corresponding form for the present came to be used only in early Middle English. It was only in the seventeenth century that the distinction was made between the true present (as in "I am writing") and the present of habit (as in "I work in a government college"). In the seventeenth century translation of the Bible we still find the present indefinite being used in "thy mother and thy sisters seek thee", although it is clearly an instance where the true present or present continuous should be used. The passive forms corresponding to the true present came into use only towards the end of the eighteenth century. They were still condemned by sticklers for grammatical correctness, who insisted that the form "the house is being built" should be replaced by "the house is building" or by the earlier form "the house is a building". But it is obvious that the earlier form cannot be employed conveniently in all contexts. Expressions like "It has recently been observed"....., "If she were to do anything of the kind, it would be most disgraceful", or "I have been working in this college for the last twenty years" etc. indicate how Modern English can adequately represent shades of meaning which could not be accurately expressed in the past.

USE OF 'DO' AND 'DID' :

An auxiliary which has come to serve a most important function in Modern English is the verb "to do". Old English had two ways of expressing an action—one employing the simple verb and the other employing the auxiliary 'do' and the verb. So one could either say, 'I sing' or 'I do sing' without any clear difference in meaning between the two forms. The Bible of 1611 contains a passage : "and they did eat and were all filled", which could very well have been replaced by the words "and they ate, and were all filled". Since the word 'do' and did like other auxiliaries, can be pronounced with strong stress whenever it is necessary to emphasize the tense or the affirmative nature of the sentence or make

it exclamatory in tone, they have often been made use of for these purposes. As the unemphatic use of 'do' and 'did' in affirmative sentences gradually became obsolete, the emphatic use began to gain in force and clearness. The compound tenses formed with do and did, however, have quite superseded the simple present and past in negative and interrogative sentences since the time of Shakespeare. We no longer ask in ordinary conversation "Heard, you the song?" just as we do not say. "He heeded not my advice." The reason for this is that after compound tenses came to be more frequently used, it became unusual for the particle 'not' or the subject of an interrogative sentence to follow any verb other than an auxiliary. That is why sentences like "Heard you the song?" and, "He heeded not my advice" sound so old.

USE OF 'SHALL' AND 'WILL':

In history of 'shall' and 'will' we have a very good illustration of the continuous struggle of language towards greater and greater clearness of expression. The meanings of these two auxiliaries convey something more than the idea of future time. As such, they may be considered inferior to the unequivocal German auxiliary 'werden'. In expressing future tenses we have to use these two forms of which one implies obligation or compulsion and the other implies will or intention. After centuries of groping towards the right expression, the language has finally evolved a rule regarding the employment of 'shall', and 'will'. According to this rule future events are divided into two categories—those which depend on the volition of the speaker and those which are independent of the same. In the first instance. 'will' is used with the first person (I will) and 'shall' is used with the second and third, (you shall, he shall, she shall, they shall). It may be said that some ambiguity still remains, in the use of will, as when one says "she will do it" though according to the rule it only indicates simple futurity. The use of "shall" no longer involves any ambiguity and it must be admitted that the English language has succeeded in making the best possible use of its inherited means of expressing the future tense.

On the whole, we see that because of the enrichment of the English verb conjugations as a result of the various developments in the course of the last three hundred years we can now accurately express every shade of meaning and every distinction in thought which can be expressed in any language by the modification of the verb. Though this increased precision and accuracy in expression are advantageous in making matter of fact statements, they are less suited to the language of emotion and contemplation. This being the case, English poetry, as well as higher literature in general, often returns to the less developed grammar of the earlier Elizabethan age.

Q. 36. Consider the profit and the loss arising from the decay of Old English inflections and the adoption of new grammatical machinery in their place.

Ans. Old English, like many other languages ancient and modern, was a fully inflected language, with a multitude of grammatical form, most of which have been discarded in the course of its history. A common noun like st*a*n (stone) was represented in Old English by the inflexional forms, st*a*n, st*a*nes, st*a*ne, st*a*nas, st*a*na and st*a*num. In place of these inflexional forms which have long been mostly dispensed with, the language has gradually developed a new and simpler grammatical machinery, which is a practically noiseless one. Since it has now reached the state where no further simplification of accidence is possible, it is worthwhile to consider the profit and loss arising from the shedding of the Old English inflexions.

LOSS OF CLARITY :

In the opinion of some historians of language, English has not lost anything which would have been worth keeping, in the evolution of its grammar. On a close study of the language, however, we have to disagree with this view. We have to admit that language has sustained some loss by the disappearance of the Old English inflexions. Anyone who uses English will certainly come to know that special care and ingenuity are required to avoid falling into ambiguities while writing down anything in modern English. A great deal of modern poetry appears obscure at first sight, because the reader is not able to decide whether there is inversion in the order of words or whether a particular word is to be treated as a noun or as a verb. Very often when the poet ventures on the inversion of the word-order which contributes to the force and beauty of the poetic diction, he has to sacrifice the claims of lucidity, as the subject of the sentence may be mistaken for the object. In a passage of poetry like that of Gray's Elegy where the poet writes :—"And all the air a solemn stillness holds," how can the reader know whether the stillness holds the air or the air holds the stillness? Such a passage of poetry, of course, if rendered into an ancient inflected language like Latin or a modern one like German would be quite clear and straight-forward. One should have very good training to write English without giving rise to ambiguity or confusion of ideas. Constant watchfulness is needed to express our ideas in clear and unmistakable terms. Very often, while writing down a sentence we may have to alter it on suddenly discovering that a word or phrase which we have used is capable of more than one interpretation. In Old English, ambiguity was avoided by the presence of the inflexional endings which served to express grammatical relations correctly. The language has certainly sustained some loss in terms of clarity and lucidity of expression, by the shedding of the Old English inflexions.

INCREASE IN CONDENSATION AND FORCE :

At the same time, it must be admitted that there are certain advantages resulting from the simplification of English accidence. Modern English

grammar has certain merits in which it is not rivalled by any other language, ancient or modern. The many additions which the language has made to its grammatical resources, during the last one thousand years, have added considerably to its powers of expression. But it is not merely by the acquisition of grammatical machinery that the language has gained in its efficiency a means of expression. Its capacity for vigorous condensation has been greatly increased by the disappearance of the superfluous inflexions. Those few inflections which still remain in use are reduced to more consonantal suffixes. On reading through any page of good English writing, we cannot help noticing how much of force and impressiveness is added to the language by the absence of inflexional endings which have nothing to do with the emotional effect intended. One of the most happy features of modern English is that it has a noiseless grammatical machinery which does not unnecessarily obtrude itself on our attention.

Apart from its unobtrusive grammatical machinery English has another advantage namely that of being able to emphasize certain grammatical relations by placing the sentence-accent on the auxiliary verb. The elliptic brevity which is so characteristic a feature of modern English is a result of the extensive use of variation in sentence accent for expressing distinctions of meaning. A typical feature of English usage is to admit the principal verb in compound tenses where it is understood from what has already been said. (As in the question and answer :—"Do you live in the place? yes, I do". The stressed auxiliary as in " I do believe in the goodness of woman" is typical feature of English usage, which is not paralleled in any other language.

In modern English the simplification of accidence has already reached its utmost conceivable limit so that we can confidently say now that the history of English grammar, at least for a long time to come, will not have anything new to record later than the twentieth century. It is true that the English vocabulary will undergo great changes in the future, with many of the existing words either disappearing or acquiring new meanings and many new words being created or adopted. But the grammar is likely to remain what it is for centuries to come. The spread of education which is characteristic of the modern period, though conducive to tolerance of innovation in vocabulary, encourages a strongly conservative attitude to grammar. Hence innovations in grammar are not likely to occur in English in the near future. The language, however, does not stand to lose by this, because the few further steps in the simplification of grammar which seem possible would involve practical difficulties. For example, if we were to substitute the regular verbs and regular nouns, they will be longer and less easily pronounceable. Hence it is better to leave English grammar in the simplified form to which it has already attained in the course of its development during the last one thousand years, instead of trying to simplify it further.

Q. 37. Give an account of the Great Vowel Shift. What is its importance in the History of the English language ?

Ans. In studying the history of English spelling and pronunciation, we find that while the consonants have not undergone much change, the vowels, and particularly the long ones, have become almost completely changed since the late Middle English period. During the period from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century the long vowels and some of the short ones are greatly shifted in sound. As an example of the pronunciation of the Old English period we can take writings belonging to the year 1000 A.D. when Aelfric, the great master of Old English prose, was popularly read. The Middle English period can be represented by Chaucer's writings and the Early Modern period is typified in Shakespeare's works. By a comparative study of the pronunciation of English by Aelfric, Chaucer, and Shakespeare, we come to the conclusion that between Chaucer's time and that of Shakespeare, the pronunciation of English vowels underwent great changes, while the changes in the consonants were much less marked. These changes in the pronunciation of English vowels during the period are popularly known to students of language as "The great vowel shift."

Old English had begun by being roughly phonetic in spelling. The letter 'a' had the sound of the unrounded vowel in the pronunciation of modern come, love etc. The letter 'o' had the pronunciation of the rounded vowel in modern not, hot etc. The letter 'u' had the pronunciation of the rounded vowel in 'put'. The combination (-aw) had the pronunciation (au) and (eaw) had the pronounced (ɛ: u) while eow was pronounced (eu) and ei, e : was pronounced (ei). The i spelling had the pronunciation of (i:) and e had the pronunciation of (e:). But this spelling of Old English, though retained in most words, is having a different pronunciation now on account of the great vowel shift. The series of changes involved in the great vowel shift can be easily understood by taking a few typical words in which the vowels occur, and tracing the changes in their spelling and pronunciations from Old English to the present day as shown below:

THE GREAT ENGLISH VOWEL SHIFT

An Approximate summary in tabular form by Daniel Jones and C. L.Wrenn

Words like	O.E. (A.D. 1000, Ælfric)	Chaucer	Shakespeare	Modern Southern
1. *Time*	i : (written *i*, *ƒ*)	i : (written *i*)	əi	*a*i, ai

2. *Green*	c : (written *e, e'*)	c : (written *e, ee*)	i :	i :
3. *Meal*	ɛ (written *e,œ*)	ɛ : (written *e, ee*)	e :	i :
4. *Name*	a (written *a*)	a : (written *a*)	ɛ :	ei
5. *Small*	ɑ (written *œ, a*)	*a* : (written *a, au*)	ɔ :	ɔ :
6. *Oak*	ɑ : (written *a, a'*)	ɔ : (written *o, oo*)	o :	ou
7. *Food*	o : (written *o, o'*)	o : (written *o, oo*)	u :	u :
8. *Now*	u : (written *u, uu*)	u : (written *ou, ow*)	u	*a*u, au
9. *Sun*	u (written *u*)	u (written *u, o*)	ʌ	ʌ
10. *New*	eu (written *eow*)	*ia* (written *ew*)	iu	ju :
11. *Few*	ɛu (written *eaw*)	ɛ u (written *ew*)	eu, iu	ju :
12. *Know*	au (written *aw, a'w*)	u (written *aw, ou*)	u,o :	ou
13. *Way*	ei (written *eʒ, ei*)	ɛ i (written *ei, ey, ai, ay*)	i, · :	ei
14. *Day*	ɛi (written *aʒ eʒ*)	ɛ i (written *ai, ay*)	ɛ i, ɛ	:ei
15. *Voice*	—	i (written *oi, oy*)	ɔi	ɔi

The modern English word 'small' illustrates the shifting of the O.E. (a) to modern (ɔ;). 'Name' indicates the shifting of the O.E. vowel (a) to modern English 'ei.' The shifting of O.E. (a:i) to Modern English ou is illustrated by the pronunciation of 'oak'. Similarly O.E. (o:) is shifted to Modern English au as in 'now'. Again O.E. u is unronounded to Modern English (ʌ) in the word sun. Old English (e:) is shifted to Modern English (i:) as in 'green'. Old English (e:) is also shifted in Modern English to (i:) as in 'meat', Old English (eu) is shifted to (ju) in 'new'. At the same time we find that Old English (ɛu) is also shifted to (ju:) in Modern English as in 'few'. Old English (e) written eɛ, ei as well as, e, oe did not undergo any shifting but remains as (ei) in Modern English too. From the accompanying table showing vowel pronunciations and spellings in the times of Aelfric, Chaucer and Shakespeare as well as those of the present day, it is evident that the shiftings in sound occurred mostly in the period between Chaucer and Shakespeare, that is, within the period from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century.

It is mainly on account of these vowel shiftings that the spelling of English which had started with being roughly phonetic in the time of Aelfric in 1000 A.D. has almost ceased to be so. Modern English spelling is either ideographic or mixed, and seldom phonetic. The importance of the great vowel shifts in the history of the language is that it partly accounts for the modern unphonetic spelling of English.

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Q. 38. Write an essay on the relation between spelling and pronunciation, and show how pronunciation can accurately be recorded in writing.

Ans. In speaking a language we make use of certain groups of sounds which form the words of language and these words are arranged in what are known as sentences (a sentence being a group of words which express a complete idea). The sounds of speech are thus made to be the symbols of our ideas and the letters of the alphabet are the symbols by which we record these sounds in writing. In other words, the spellings of words in alphabetical writing are the symbols we make use of in representing the sounds of the spoken language, which serve as the symbols of our thoughts and ideas. Now it happens that spelling may or may not adequately represent the sounds of speech. In languages like English, the same letter of the alphabet may be used to express more than one sound and the same sound may be recorded in writing by a variety of spellings.

THREE KINDS OF SPELLING :

The kind of spellings in which the same sound is consistently represented by the same letter of the alphabet is known as phonetic spelling. A spelling in which the sounds of one word are represented by a group of letters irrespective of the phonetic values which may be given to each of these letters elsewhere, is called ideographic spelling. In ideographic spelling it is the idea, thought or thing that is represented by the spelling and there is no indication of the pronunciation in such a spelling. This spelling has the advantage of being unaffected by changes in pronunciation. A third kind of spelling is known as mixed spelling. It is partly phonetic and partly ideographic. English is an example of a language employing a mixed spelling. In some words English spelling is phonetic (milk, sit, let etc. are phonetic, in spelling) while in some other words the spelling is ideographic. Words like psychology, knowledge, buoy provide examples of ideographic spelling. Because of the changing nature of pronunciation a spelling which starts with being phonetic, cannot long continue to be so. If a spelling is to continue to be phonetic, it will have to be continually revised in accordance with the changing pronunciation. A phonetic spelling is based on the assumption that language is static.

Pronunciation which depends partly on physical characteristics and partly on psychological factors which are continually changing in the

individuals, groups of people and nations, can never be stationary. This is seen from the fact that English spelling is becoming more and more ideographic as time passes. The idea conveyed by a group of letters seen on a page is conveyed direct to our minds without the intermediary of sound. It is significant that modern books for children who are beginning to read, often say "look and say", referring to the groups of letters on the printed page which stand for each word instead of saying "listen and repeat". The fixation of English spelling which was completed by the printers in the 17th century and confirmed by the rise of dictionaries in the following century, has made English spelling largely ideographic and independent of pronunciation. As a result of this people all over the world who pronounce English in many different ways and are sometimes mutually unintelligible, can still communicate with each other by means of the written form of the language, where groups of letters are the symbols of words and not of sounds.

PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION :

In what is known as the science of phonetics the sounds we make in speech are treated independently of the way we set them down in alphabetical writing. To satisfy a universally-felt need it has been found necessary to invent a 'phonetic' writing where fixed symbols are made use of in recording the actual sounds of speech without regard to the established conventions of spelling. With the help of such phonetic symbols it is possible for any man to write down a foreign language as he hears it, without any understanding of the meaning of its words. This phonetic transcript can then be translated by any one who knows the language. The phonetic writing universally accepted is that of the International Phonetic Association. This is illustrated in the following list of words where the spellings as well as the phonetic transcriptions of the words are given. (Where there are no English words to illustrate the pronunciation of a particular phonetic symbol, French words containing the sound have been taken as examples in this list):—

VOWELS

Phonetic symbol	*Current spelling*	*Phonetic transcription*
ȧ	*patte* (French)	pat
ɑ:	*father*	fa:ðə
æ	*hat*	hæt
ɛ	*met*	mɛt
ɛ:	*bete* (French)	bɛ:t
e	*e't'e* (French)	ete
i	*bit*	bit
i:	*machine*	məʃi:n
ɔ	*not*	nɔt

ɔ:	*bought*	bɔ:t
o:	*beau* (French)	bo :
u	*foot*	fut
u:	*boot*	bu:t
y	*but* (French)	by
y:	*lune* (French)	ly : n
ə	*china* (last syll.)	tʃainə
ʌ	*but*	bʌt
ai	*bite*	bait
ei	*play*	plei
au	*house*	haus
ou	*stone*	stoun
ŋ	*finger*	fiŋgə

CONSONANTS

Phonetic symbol	*Current spelling*	*Phonetic transcription*
j	*your* (initial)	ju :ə
g	*good*	gud
k	*cat*	kæt
ð	*then*	ðɛn
þ	*thin*	þin
kw	*quick*	kwik
ʃ	*shin*	ʃin
tʃ	*chin*	tʃin
x	*loch*	lɔx
z	*zebra*	zɛbrə
s	*silk*	silk
ʒ	*measure*	mɛʒə
dʒ	*jam*	dʒæm

The other consonantal sounds are pronounced as they are in modern English and the phonetic symbols for them are not different from their actual written form. For instance bit, milk, sin are all having the same form in phonetic transcription as well as alphabetical writing because b, p, t, m, l, k, s, n, are the same in phonetic script as well as in current spelling. In making use of the phonetic symbols which are given above, the following points have to be kept in mind:—

1. The liquid sounds l, r, m, n, may be pronounced as syllables when a mark is placed below them as in (priz*m*) or(teib*l*) or (r ae ʃ n)
2. Phonetic transcriptions are always given in square brackets to distinguish them from actual spelling. Thus the phonetic transcription of man is given as (m ae n).
3. The syllables having strong stress are usually marked with an acute

accent as in (beikən)

4. Every phonetic symbol has its sound value and there are no silent symbols. The word knight is to be phonetically transcribed as (nait) and the k being silent has no place in the phonetic transcription. But in the Old English form of the word the 'k' was not silent and so the phonetic transcription of O.E. niht is (kniht).

5. Every long vowel is indicated by putting a colon after its short form as in cool (ku:1)

6. The symbol ə (reversed e) is used to represent the 'neutral' vowel which is very common in English words and occurs in most unstressed syllables as in machine (m ə ʃ i:n) father (fa:ð e) etc. The long form of this vowel occurs in words like bird (bi:d).

The advantage of using a phonetic writing employing the symbols listed above is that actual pronunciation of words can be accurately indicated. After the fixation of English spelling by the printers in the seventeenth century, English pronunciation has changed considerably. But these changes, especially those of the vowels involved in what is usually referred to as "the great vowel shift", are not recorded in English spelling. These can only be indicated now with the help of the phonetic symbols. In these days when English is spoken all over the world by people who pronounce it in different ways, some of which would be hardly intelligible to the British speakers, phonetic writing is the only means of indicating the pronunciation of English in one part of the world to the speakers of the language in the other parts of the English speaking world.

Q. 39. Give a brief account of the history of English spelling and pronunciation showing how English spelling has become so unphonetic.

Ans. The spelling of English, so far as its relation to the spoken word is concerned, is quite crazy. While a perfect phonetic alphabet would employ a symbol for each sound, and for each sound only one symbol would always be employed, English is notorious for doing neither of these things. We find one and the same letter of the alphabet being used for indicating several sounds and we find the same sound being indicated by different letters of the alphabet in different words. In addition to this, we find that in ordinary English spelling the pronunciation is not accurately indicated by marking the accented syllable in each word. These deficiencies of the alphabet and the imperfections arising from the way it is used are of various kinds.

Apart from the fact that most sounds are spelt in more than one way and that most letters are employed to indicate more than one sound there are some 'silent' letters in certain words. In certain other word there are sounds which are not represented in spelling. It is also true o

English that it has certain characters which represent no simple sound, as well as sounds to which no character belongs. As a result of all this, we find that there is a great difference between written and spoken English. In other words English is characterised by the absence of any rational relation between its sounds and the visual signs employed to represent these sounds in writing. This unphonetic English spelling instead of exercising some control over the pronunciation, has let the spoken language free to develop on its own lines of pronunciation. The result of this is that English spelling, which at present is of a mixed nature (being partly phonetic and partly ideographic) is becoming more and more ideographic everyday.

In order to understand this state of affairs and to account for the irrational spelling system of English we have to trace the history of English spelling and pronunciation from Anglo-Saxon times to the present day. In doing this we will understand that in English spelling as it is at present, there remain vestiges of general principles which, when elucidated, furnish an explanation for the spelling of most English words. The ancestors of the English people, namely the Angles, Saxons and Jutes, on their arrival in Britain, adopted the Roman alphabet from the native inhabitants. To this they added letters from their own Runic Script (used by the priests and men of learning among the Germanic peoples for magical and religious purposes and consisting mostly of straight-lined symbols scratched upon stone) to represent the sound which did not exist in Latin. Thus the letter *p*, still surviving in the archaic spelling for 'the' was introduced into the Old English alphabet. Similarly the symbol ð was improvised by adopting the Irish form of the Latin 'd' and putting a line across its upper stroke. Both these letters represented the th-sounds, the *p* standing for the voiceless form and the ð for the voiced form. They are both represented by the -th spelling in Modern English.

Though there is great discrepancy between sound and visual symbol in English words at present, the written form of these words had started on their careers as phonograms. In other words the Anglo-Saxon spelling of English words had represented the corresponding sounds immediately, or they were phonographic. From being phonograms they have slowly lost that character and become diagrams suggesting the corresponding ideas immediately, and the connection with the sounds of the words has become mediate. English spelling has, in fact, become ideographic during the centuries which separate the present age from that of the first Anglo-Saxon settlers in English. The change from a phonographic to an ideographic spelling was begun in the late Old English period and was hastened with the advent of the Normans. Old English which began by being roughly phonetic in spelling, was slowly becoming unphonetic with the development of its pronunciation during the four centuries preceding the Normans Conquest. For instance the -c in the Old English

words 'cuman' (come) and cyrice (church) had almost the sound of K though one was a back sound and the other a palatal or front sound. By the end of the Old English period the front -c in cyrice had come to be sounded as a sibilant, (tʃ), like the modern ch- in church. During the middle English period the French scribes started using the ch -spelling to indicate this sibilant (tʃ). Thus we see that the Old English c in cyrice and the Middle English ch were both indicating the same sound and the change in spelling did not correspond to any change in pronunciation.

The Norman conquest which witnessed great changes in the spoken language (some of which would have certainly taken place, even if the Normans had never set foot in England) also occasioned much alteration in English spelling. Instead of keeping to the roughly phonetic Anglo-Saxon spelling system the French scribes introduced some of their own symbols, besides using the Old English alphabet according to their own spelling traditions which were different from those of Anglo-Saxon. The vowels a, e and o were doubled to indicate length and the mark of the long vowels employed in Old English was discarded. The letters j, p, and v were added to the alphabet and u and h were introduced after a 'hard'(-g) sound as in guest (earlier gest), ghostly (earlier gaestlic). The French system of orthography was incompletely applied and as a result of this, all consistency in English spelling was lost from this time.

Between the beginning of the fifteenth century and that of the sixteenth, the final (e-) which was a characteristic of so many Middle English words and was very often the remnant of the Old English inflexional ending, came to be mostly dropped in pronunciation. In words where the final e- occurred after a consonant preceded by a short vowel it was generally dropped in pronunciation though retained in spelling. That is how we find a final -e- in the spellings of words like come, love which have become monosyllabic in pronunciation. In words where the final (-e-) succeeded a consonant which was preceded by a long vowel, it was retained as a sign of vowel length. Though Old English 'god' is now spelt 'good' (because of the French device of doubling the vowel to indicate length, the vowel has become shortened and changed in more recent times that the modern pronunciation of the word is (gud). The form 'stoon' used by Chaucer in place of the Old English *Stan* has been replaced by stone. At the same time a large number of consonants following a short vowel were doubled.

The French scribes, faced with the problem of transcribing the English y as in cyrice wrote it as u-according to the tradition of their own orthography. This accounts for the u spelling in church. The French scribes found in English the long u sound spelt as *u* as in the Old English word h*u*s. There was also short u sound as in Old English lufu which was also spelt u. Thus it happened that the spelling u had to be made to do duty for three sounds namely, Old English (y) and (u). In addition to

this, according to the method of writing the letters m, n, u, in those days, these letters were often confused easily. Hence the French Scribes started the convention of writing ou for (u:) as in house, o for short (u) whenever it came next, to m, n, w, or other possible confusable symbols. Thus 'lufu' which had become weakened in ending to love came to be written as love. This is how many words with the pronunciation of (u) in Middle English came to be written with an o spelling as in come, monk, son etc. These have all become unrounded in modern English to (kʌm) (mʌŋk), (sʌn) etc. while still retaining the now unphonetic spelling with o.

While it is true that consonant sounds have undergone little change since Old English times inspite of the considerable changes in spelling, English vowels, particularly the long ones, have undergone very great changes during the history of the language. The changes were not so very marked till late in the Middle English period. From the fifteenth to the seventeenth centuries the long vowels and some of the short ones were shifted very greatly in sound. If we take the spelling of Aelfric in the year 1000 as characteristic of Old English, Chaucer's as characteristic of Middle English, and Shakespeare's to typify Modern English, we will get an idea of the main changes which have taken place during the history of English. These changes which occurred mainly between Chaucer's time and that of Shakespeare are commonly known by the term the Great Vowel Shift. According to this sound shifting the long vowel (i:) occurring in Old English and in Chaucer, is changed into (əi) by Shakespeare's time and is later changed into the diphthong (ai) in Modern English. But the spelling i which represented the (i) sound in Old English still remains unchanged as in words like time. The (e:) and (ɛ:) of Old English occurring in words like green and meat respectively have both become changed into (i:) in Modern English. While in Chaucer the Old English pronunciation was retained in the case of the first sound the second was merely lengthened. Chaucer's (e) had become (i) in Shakespeare, while Chaucerian (ɛ:) had become (e). Old English (a) as in 'name' had the -a lengthened in Chaucer's pronunciation while it was raised to (p:) in Shakespeare and later diphthongised in Modern English to (ei). The 'a' of Old English which became lengthened to a: in Chaucer was rounded (ɒ:) in Shakespeare and has remained as such in Modern English. Old English (a:) became rounded to (ɔ:) in Chaucer with the spelling -oo and was changed into (o) in Shakespeare. It has been later diphthongised to (ou). An example of these changes we have in the pronunciation and spelling of 'oak'. Old English (o:) written 'oo' in Chaucer had not undergone any change in pronunciation, in Chaucer's time. It was further rounded to u: in Shakespeare and has remained as such in Modern English. Old English (u:) written ou, ow in Chaucer was changed in pronunciation to (eu) in Shakespeare and (au) in Modern English. This accounts for the present spelling and pronunciation of the word 'now' in which the spelling was fixed by the printers in the 17th

century though the pronunciation was changed after that. Old English short (u) was retained as such in Chaucer's pronunciation though the spelling was 'o' in the neighbourhood of letters which could be confused with u. It has been unrounded to (ʌ) from the time of Shakespeare though the spelling is often as in come, love, monk etc. The Old English diphthongs too have undergone much shifting. The diphthong (eu) spelt eow in Old English and 'ew' in Chaucer had become changed in pronunciation to (iu) in Chaucer's English. It remained (iu) in Shakespeare pronunciation, but has become changed in Modern English to (ju) Old (ε u) which was written eaw was spelt ew in Chaucer while the pronunciation remained the same. It was changed to (iu) in Shakespeare and to (ju) in Modern English. The Old English au written aw, was written ow, ou in Chaucer and pronounced ou. It was changed to (o) in Shakespeare and ou in Modern English. The spelling and pronunciation of Modern 'know' illustrates these changes. Old English (ei) was changed to (ε: :) and spelt ei, ey or ai, ay in Chaucer. It became (ε) in Shakespeare and (ei) in Modern English. Similarly Old English (ε) written ei was written as ai, ay in Chaucer and pronounced as (ε i). It was changed into (ε :) in Shakespeare and (ei) in Modern English. The (ɔ i) occurring in words borrowed after the Norman Conquest has continued as such, with the oi or oy spelling as in boys, etc. In all these instances we find that the changes in pronunciation from Old English to Middle English are not very considerable and that most of the vowel changes took place after Chaucer's time, during the Shakespearean or Modern period. It is also seen that the spellings representing the various vowel sounds had become fixed before Chaucer's time and have continued as such, because of the introduction of printing in the 17th century.

Before the introduction of printing the spelling of a word could be changed at the will of the writer when the pronunciation was altered. Thus the system of orthography had kept touch with the actual sounds of words, thereby preserving a certain degree of fluidity. But when once the printed books got about and the spelling in print was universally accepted, changes in pronunciation could no longer be expressed in spelling. It happened that the spelling of English words were practically fixed in their present form at about the time when great changes were taking place in English pronunciation as indicated already. In addition to this, during the Renascence the study of the classical languages enabled many people to understand the original sources of the words which had already been borrowed from the French. So an attempt was made to change the spellings of such words in a way which reminded one of their classical origin. This spelling reform had nothing to do with the spoken forms of the words at the time. The pedants who brought in these changes in spelling, seem to have felt that the proper function of spelling was to indicate the origin of a word and not its pronunciation. Thus a b was inserted in debt to show its derivation from Latin, 'debitum',

and 'l' in fault to show how it is related to Latin 'fallere'. Because of the Latin word receptum the English word receipt was spelt with the p. Such changes resulted in making English spelling (which was already unphonetic) all the more ideographic. Under the present system of English orthography all people who understand the language are not able to pronounce every word at sight or to write every word on hearing its sound. Each person wanting to pronounce English correctly has to learn it by imitation or by reference to a pronouncing dictionary. The spelling of each new word that is heard for the first time has also to be learned carefully. It is seen that the commonest and shortest words are the most inconsistent in spelling. Though it is true that the many recent words of Latin and Greek origin follow a settled system of pronunciation, some inconsistencies are found even among newer formations. The 'eo' spellings occurring in stereotype and mine owner have nothing common in their pronunciation just, as the 'ea' in mileage and lineage are pronounced differently. So are the 'lime' in limelight and limerick.

As a result of the discrepancy between English spelling and English pronunciation the labour of reading alphabetical writing has been raised to the maximum. The teaching and learning of spelling wastes the time of teachers and pupils. Though at first the student of English may start with vowel sounds and consonants properly associated with signs, as he proceeds to learn more and more words, the number of exceptions soon outstrip the regular examples so that he has to rely entirely upon his memory for the correct spelling of words.

The discrepancy between English spelling and pronunciation is uneducative in a very deep sense. The little child who begins learning English, finds that in the form of English spelling he is faced with a miracle of contorted inconsistency quite out of keeping with the ordered world he has been used to. What he learns one day is contradicted the very next. day . He never knows when his half-formed impressions are going to be upset by the inconsistencies in English spelling. As a result of his growing acquaintance with English orthography, he acquires the bad habit of not relying upon his reason any longer. To conclude, "So far as it is used by children in learning to read, English spelling is a very effective device for manufacturing apathy and unreason upon a national scale".[1] The unphonetic nature of English spelling is a great impediment in the way of learning this language.

Q. 40. Does spelling have any influence on pronunciation? If it has, give illustrations from Modern English.

Ans. The written form of a word is a kind of symbolic representation of the actual sounds used in its pronunciation. The spelling represents

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1. **J. H. Jagger :** *Modern English.*

the pronunciation with varying degrees of accuracy. In the case of a phonetic spelling definite symbols are consistently used in all words containing the same sounds. In the case of ideographic spelling a given group of letters stands for a particular word and the idea for which the word stands, is conveyed to the mind by the written word almost without the intermediary of sound. A spelling system like that of English which is said to be mixed (that is, partly phonetic and partly ideographic), is becoming more and more ideographic as time passes, since the fixed spelling does not record the changes in pronunciation. English spelling in modern times has not only moved far away from its roughly phonetic nature but also succeeded in influencing the pronunciation to a certain extent.

From early times there has existed a feeling on the part of grammarians that popular forms and pronunciations of many words were wrong. Very often capricious and very wrong attempts have been made, as a result of such a feeling, to correct the accepted spelling and pronunciations of words. For instance an attempt has been made to change words like umble, onour, abit etc. back to shapes more in accordance with their original spelling and thus the 'h' has been added to each so as to give us the modern spellings, humble, honour, habit etc. Similarly 'b' was inserted in debt to show that it is derived from Latin debitum and 'l' in fault to show its relation to Latin fallere and 'p' in receipt because of its connection with Latin receptum. Though in the words honour, debt, receipt etc. the pedantic spellings have not affected the pronunciation, there are certain other words in which the letters inserted pedantically have come to be pronounced. Though fault has rhymed with thought in the 18th century, the 'l' has come to be pronounced in later English. From the nineteenth century 'h' has come to be pronounced in humble, hospital and habit. In words like advance and advantage a 'd' has been pedantically inserted through learned ignorance and this 'd' is also represented in modern pronunciation though the earlier pronunciation of these were avance and avantage. Because of the influence of spelling, consonants which had become silent in earlier pronunciation have been gradually restored and such old forms a e'er, e'en, ta'en, have been condemned as vulgar or have been restricted to poetry. So also the historic ma'am has been replaced by modern 'madam'.

From the time of Johnson who was of the view that "the most elegant speakers deviate the least from the written word", there has been a general tendency in the direction of what may be termed "spelling pronunciation". Speakers of English have often been guided by an accidental spelling system brought into use centuries ago by printers, and having very little to do with phonetic developments which have taken place since this arbitrary fixation of spelling. The printer's spelling, for instance, is responsible for the modern pronunciation of victuals which was written vittles or wittles down to the sixteenth century. The printer, again, was

responsible for the approximately phonetic spelling esteem (from French estimer) while he spelt French obliger as oblige. Though oblige is rhymed with besiege by Pope and though it was still pronounced as obleege by the older generation of English speakers in the reign of Queen Victoria, the spelling of the word has resulted in its pronunciation being completely changed in modern English.

We are too far removed from the late eighteenth century to tell how much the pronunciation of the learned elite in those days had been affected by the Johnsonian influence. From what we know of the language used in the correspondence of the 'unlearned' ladies of the highest rank, it is clear that Mrs. Gamp's pronunciation resembled that of an early Georgian duchess. Though Dryden and Gray both rhymed creature with traitor, the spelling of creature has caused it to be altered later in pronunciation so that it now rhymes with feature. Again we find that torture which was pronounced so as to rhyme with porter in the days of Lady Wentworth, has also undergone change in pronunciation because of the spelling. We again find that at the beginning of the ninteenth century Pusey's aristocratic old mother called her son by the name of Edward and described herself as an old 'ooman'. In both words we find that 'we' has been restored later in pronunciation because of the influence of spelling. Similarly the respect for the written form is responsible for changing the wellbred pronunciation of the mid nineteenth century 'fi-pun-note' into the modern five-pound note.

It was about the age of Jane Austen that a distinction began to be drawn between the language of polite society and uneducated speech. Well on into the nineteenth century, in the language of polite speech, many pronunciations which we now consider laughable, still survived. Duke was pronounced as dook, obliged was pronounced as obleeged, sit was pronounced as set, chair was pronounced like cheer and tea was pronounced as tay. In all these instances the older pronunciations have been changed into the modern ones because of the influence of the spellings. Earlier cultivated English was different in pronunciation from the later speech which has been influenced by the pedantic respect for spelling.

After the passing of the Elementary Education Act of 1870, a new phase in the pronunciation of English words has begun. School teachers, who were ignorant of the accidental and often artificial nature of English spelling, made it more and more the basis of their teaching of pronunciation to the young. They began introducing such pronunciations as that of often with a -t and that of forehead so that it no longer rhymes with horrid. It looks as if the vowel in clerk will soon be altered, as it has already been done in America, so as to make the word rhyme with jerk. In all probability, the influence of the "regular and solemn" pronunciation which has been recommended by Dr. Johnson, will succeed in ousting the "cursory and colloquial" pronunciation of words like

'boatswain' and 'fore-castle'. Though the old pronunciation still continues in the higher circles, the pressure from below will soon result in a standardized pronunciation which is more in keeping with the spelling of these words.

Though it is true that there may be some inconsistencies and anomalies in the spellings of most languages, English is admittedly quite crazy in the way it expresses the relationship between the spoken word and the written one. It cannot be said of this language that its spelling is a fairly good guide to its pronunciation or that its sound is a good guide to its spelling. The author of 'Pygmalion' was keenly aware of the callous indifference of the Englishman to the correct pronunciation of his language and it will be sometime before Bernard Shaw's ghost will be appeased by something being done about the improvement of English speech. As it is, the foreign student of English is puzzled by seeing the same group of letters representing a variety of sounds. For instance the combinations 'ea' and 'ather' are used in three different ways in the words meat, great and lead, and bather, father and lather, respectively. The silent letters in such words as two, sword, knot, wreck, lieutenant, and colonel are also very confusing to a student of the language. Equally puzzling is the change in pronunciation resulting from the shifting of the accent often with change of the part of speech meant, in such words as convert, object, rebel, digest etc. The extraordinary divergence between spelling and pronunciation in modern English is, to some extent, lessened by accepting more of what is known as spelling pronunciation. But the Englishman's conservatism and the respect for the traditional usage which preserve the link with the past, have been acting as a check to this.

However the influence of spelling on pronunciation has been particularly noticeable in two classes of words. The first includes those words like host, human, hospital etc. which had come into English from Old French without an 'h' sound. The second includes words like theatre, author and apothecary which had come into English with a t spelt as -th. The influence of spelling on pronunciation has resulted in making many of the words in the first class to be pronounced with an h sound and in giving the (θ) sound to words in the sound class. By comparing words like host, human, hospital and humour with hour, honest and honour and words like theatre, author and apothecary with Thomas, Thames, and Esther we can understand one underlying principle of spelling pronunciation. The words which have not been affected by spelling pronunciation like hour, honest, Thames, Thomas etc. are the kind of words which are likely to be learned by children before they learn to read and write and to become familiar with the spellings of words. At the same time those words which we become familiar with after learning to read and write and see often in the written form, are the ones in which we are apt to guess at the pronunciation from the spelling. Because even educated people unconciously reason that words should be pronounced

as they are spelt, many spelling-pronunciations become accepted in good usage, with the result that the older, traditional, and phonetically natural pronunciations are gradually discarded.

The influence of spelling is particularly seen in the pronunciations of proper names, especially place names, which are seen in print by people who are not familiar with the traditional pronunciations. While the inhabitants of Greenwich, Woolwich and Norwich in England pronounce these names as (grini dz), (wuli dz) (ncri dz), people elsewhere are influenced by the spelling into pronouncing them as (grinwiʧ) (wul-wiʧ) and (norwiʧ). Concord pronounced (ken ked) locally, and Chelms ford, pronounced locally as (ʧemzfəd) are pronounced (konkərd) and (ʧelmzford) outside New England. Now it happens that there are certain places in England with their traditional names, widely separated in pronunciation from their fixed spellings, while other places in America having the same names follow a spelling pronunciation. Thus though Greenwhich in England is pronounced (grini dz) it is pronounced (grinwit ʃ) in Cannecticut. The river Thames is (tεmz) in England and (θəmz) in Connecticut. Waltham which is pronounced (woltəm) in England, is (wolθəm) in American pronunciation. So also Edinburg (εdinʌrə) in Scotland is pronounced (θdinbəg) in American towns. There are some names in which certain letters are brought together to suggest a pronunciation different from the traditional one. Thus Eltham, English (εltəm) become American (εlθəm) and Bentham (bεntəm) becomes American (benθəm) and Feversham (ʃεvəzəm) becomes (εvəʃəm).

Those who insist that all English words should be pronounced as they are spelt, have no idea of the revolution it will bring about in modern English. In the opinion of Dr. Fuhrken, advocates of spelling pronunciation are willing to mispronounce English words just for the pleasure of showing that they know how these words are spelt. In doing this they are not only mistaken about the nature, origin and growth of all languages, but are also strangely ignorant of the fact that they cannot carry out their own rule fully. This can be seen by attempting to pronounce all the letters in a set of given words with their usual sounds.

Q. 41. Is a reform of English spelling desirable and practicable ?

Or

Give the reasons for and against a reform of English spelling.

Ans. The English alphabet consisting of twenty six signs would be quite inadequate in representing the twenty three consonant sounds and eighteen vowel sounds of the spoken language, even if it were used very regularly and consistently. Unfortunately the letters of the alphabet are used in English spelling with complete irregularity. The spelling is also

defective in as much as it does not mark the accents in the words though syllabic stress is a very conspicuous feature of English speech. In a pair of words like 'quandary' and 'vagary' the difference in accent is not indicated in spelling, and unless one has heard the two words correctly pronounced one has to consult a dictionary to know how they are accented.

ARGUMENTS IN FAVOUR OF REFORM :

The irrational and absurd spelling system of English reminds one of a completely self-contradictory puzzle. The letters vary from word to word in phonetic value. This can be illustrated by comparing the different sounds represented by the spelling -ea in great, heat, heart, feather, earth, fear and delineate. Similarly one cannot make out from the spelling that the words be, been, lean, key, quay, yield, deceive, people and police all contain the same vowel sound (i:). It follows that in English spelling, each of the sounds of speech is represented by a variety of spellings. It also follows that every letter or the alphabet is used to indicate more than one sound. In addition to this, we find that there are letters which have no phonetic value, like the silent 'c' in scent, the silent 'k' in knife, the silent 'l' in palm, the silent 't' in listen and the silent 'r' in card. There are also sounds which are not represented in spelling like the vowel in the last syllable of 'little'. Again a single sound is usually indicated by a combination of letters, like the sh for (ʃ) and ph for (f). At the same time a single letter like j is used to represent a combination of sounds (dz). The same letter x stands for three different pairs of sounds in the words examine, exercise and luxury. From all this it is clear that English spelling is as chaotic as the most perverted ingenuity could make it. Hence it follows that a reform of the spelling system would be highly desirable.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST REFORM :

An additional argument advanced in favour of a reform of English spelling is that the study of spelling now involves a lot of labour, which could be diverted to some better purpose. Because English spelling is so irrational, children who are learning to read and to spell, have to commit the spelling of each word to memory. The teacher also has to waste a lot of time in teaching the young to read and write correctly. Before considering these points we have to compare English children with German and Italian children who have to learn spelling systems which are more consistent than that of English. It is a fact that English, German, and Italian children show the same degree of competence at corresponding ages in the learning and spelling of their native languages. This is because they depend entirely on memory for spelling of each word as a whole without bothering about the consistency of the spelling system. It is only when they are older that they acquire the analytic power necessary for the use of phonetic symbols. So, as far as the study

of spelling by little children is concerned, according to this argument there is no urgent need for the reform of English spelling.

NEED FOR 'ANGLIC':

But it may be pointed out that it would be as easy for English children to learn a consistent system of spelling as the existing inconsistent one. Besides, there is another strong reason for the reform of English spelling. Though children cannot very logically associate a letter of the alphabet with a sound, an adult can do so. It would therefore be much easier for a foreigner to learn English if its spelling were less inconsistent. As far as foreign students are concerned the irrational spelling system of English acts as a stumbling block to their learning to write it. This is evident from the fact that Professor Zaccharisson of the University of Upsala went to the extent of inventing a rationalized English spelling called 'Anglic' for the benefit of the foreign students. He would leave English spelling to Englishmen and recommend Anglic spelling to foreigners. He thus wants to help the spreading of English as a universal language. But then, against this point, it may be argued that language usually spreads by being spoken, more than by being studied in schools or colleges. A phonetic script would, of course, be a great blessing to people who master a language by deliberate study. But such people being few in number the spreading of English is not much affected by its present spelling.

There is one very powerful argument which is advanced by those who are against any reform of the traditional English spelling. It is that however unphonetic or inconsistent English spelling may be, it serves the purpose of conveying ideas directly by means of written symbols from one to another. In all writing, the aim is to convey the meaning, and the representation of the sounds is the means to that end. Though English spelling had originally attempted to represent sounds it has dispensed with the means, namely the phonetic spelling, and now proceeds straight to its purpose. Though it fails to represent sounds it is a direct representation of meaning. In other words it is almost ideographic now, though it had originally been phonographic in the Anglo-Saxon times. Now such a system of spelling which represents meaning directly, having dispensed with the intermediary of sounds, has certain advantages. To begin with, there are many pairs of words in English which have the same pronunciation but are spelt differently. Allowed-aloud, symbol-cymbal, week-weak, know-no, one-won are examples of these. If English spelling is reformed so as to become more phonetic, both words in each pair would be pronounced as well as spelt alike it would certainly be a disadvantage. As things are at present, English spelling is better than English speech as far as the words like those listed above are concerned. So it is argued that no good purpose can be served by the reform of the existing English spelling.

Another advantage of the present system of spelling is that it enables us to perceive better the connections between related words like nátion-national, severe-severity, and refuse, convert etc. when used as nouns and verbs. The pronunciation which is altered with the altered function of these related words when represented in a phonetic spelling, would fail to indicate their relationship. This however, is considered a flimsy argument against spelling reform since only students of language are interested in such subjects as the relations between words in a language.

Another more powerful argument against spelling reform is that it is practically impossible to have phonetic and consistent system of spelling. Those who attempt to fix the spelling in a correct and enduring form, are forgetting the fundamental facts about the nature of language. Language, by being spoken, is continually changing, though the change is very slow and gradual. No language has continued to have the same spoken form for a long period of time. If the spelling is going to be reformed and made to conform to the pronunciation of English at present, it cannot long remain strictly phonetic. In the course of the next two or three hundred years many of the sounds now occurring in English words may become changed. By that time present reformed spelling would have become quite unphonetic and it will have to be reformed again. If spellings were to be reformed fróm age to age like this, all continuity with our past literature will be lost. A student of the 21st century will then have to study the literature of the 20th century in much the same way as we study the works of Chaucer or of Aelfric. On the other hand, if the spelling is allowed to remain as it is, it will serve to convey meaning all right, whatever the values succeeding generations assign to the visual symbols used by us.

PROBLEM RELATED TO STRESS :

There is also another point to be considered. In English the pronunciation of many common monosyllabic words varies accordingly as they are stressed or not. Words like am, him, he, the, are, was, can, shall, all have one pronunciation for the stressed form and another for unstressed. If spelling were to be made strictly phonetic, then we would have to publish two lists of standard spellings for words of this kind, one for the stressed and the other for the unstressed positions. This is evidently very difficult to carry out in practice and will only make the spelling more complicated. Besides the distinction between the stressed and unstressed pronunciations of monosyllabic words there are many other delicate shades and nuances of speech like intonation of speech and the quality of the voice which cannot be accurately indicated even by a phonetic spelling.

PROBLEM RELATED TO FORM OF SPEECH :

Even if we were to attempt to make the English spelling more regular and consistent with the actual sounds of speech there would be practical

difficulties. First of all we will have to decide upon the form of speech which is to serve as the model on which to base the reformed spelling. The B.B.C. announcer's Received Standard is by far the best English speech we can fix upon. But as far as the millions of people all over the world who do not speak the Received Standard and are content with some modification of this are concerned, this reformed spelling based on the Received Standard pronunciation will not be indicating the sounds of actual speech. To them the new spelling would be partly ideographic and partly phonetic, just as the present one is. Since the people who speak the Received Standard are far out-numbered by the rest of the English-speaking peoples in the world, there would be no practical advantage in having a reformed English spelling as indicated above.

PROBLEM RELATED TO LEARNING :

The English-speaking world would not favour the re-spelling of English phonetically, unless there were great practical benefits arising from such a step. It is proved by practical experience that people cannot read more rapidly even if they employed a more phonetic spelling. It has not yet been proved that any child learns to read a phonetic spelling faster than an unphonetic one. A reformed spelling would also bring about a disintegration of the English speaking peoples, the majority of whom do not conform to the Received Standard in pronunciation. All the printers' type would become useless and a new set of symbols like those of the International Phonetic Association will have to be adopted universally. As these things would cause a tremendous upheaval in the English speaking world, the reform of spelling is not practicable. To conclude, a reform of the present English spelling, though it may appear to have certain advantages, is really not very desirable or practicable. The greatest arguments against it are that spelling can never be made fully phonetic on account of the changing nature of pronunciation and that a reformed spelling will make us to lose touch with the valuable literature of the past.

Q. 42. Write an essay on the development of dictionaries in English.

Ans. Living in the modern world where the use of dictionaries is so common as to be taken for granted, it is difficult for us to think of an age when there were no dictionaries to be consulted and people were left to their own devices in arriving at the correct use of spelling or pronunciation of words. The ancients in the classical world as well as the people of the Middle Ages were accustomed to the use of glossaries or collections of glosses. A gloss was a Latin term for a "rare word needing special explanation" and collections of glosses contained translations or explanations of "hard words" not easily understood by ordinary people. But these glossaries only dealt with selected groups of words and they could in no way compare with modern dictionaries either in their scope or in their achievement. At the time of the Renaissance there was a need for Latin and Greek dictionaries to facilitate the study of the classics. Encouraged by the help given by dictionaries in the study of classical languages, people slowly turned to the clarification and improvement of their own languages. Very crude and incomplete attempts at lexicography were then made in the sixteenth century. The first of these to make its appearance in England was Thomas Cooper's Thesaurs Linguage Romance at Britannicae of 1565. This contained explanations of a number of difficult and obsolete words. A Table of Alphabetical English words published in 1604 by Robert Cawdrey was the next attempt at lexicography in English. This was followed in 1658 by Edward Philips's *New World of English Words*. This work, as the author claimed, contained "the interpretations of all the words derived from foreign languages."

While the first two stages in the history of English lexicography were the glossary and the selective dictionary as indicated already, the third stage was marked by Stephen Skinner's "Etymologicon Linguaed Anglicane", published in 1667. In addition to the meanings of words their etymologies were also given by Skinner because the exact meaning of a word can be better understood by knowing its history before entering the language. Another etymological dictionary like that of Skinner was published in 1677 by a Dutch Scholar by name Francis Junius and it was entitled *Etymologicon Anglicanum*. What is common to these two dictionaries is that they were both written in Latin, which was nothing unusual those days.

VARIOUS DICTIONARIES :

After these preliminary attempts in lexicography we find that the first dictionary in the usual sense was published in 1708 by John Kersey. It

was entitled *Dictionarium Anglo-Britannicum* or *A General English Dictionary*. In this dictionary we find the fourth stage in lexicography being marked by the author's attempt to set out the whole of the literary language. In 1730 Nathan Bailey's more scholarly work. "Dictionary", was produced. It was the most advanced Dictionary in the language at the time. Here we have a fifth feature introduced into the Dictionary in the form of illustrations of definitions and meanings by quotations from the best contemporary works. The reader was thus helped in understanding the exact shades of meaning given to English words by seeing them used in the given examples.

DR. JOHNSON'S DICTIONARY :

With Samuel Johnson's "Dictionary of the English Language" published in 1755 we find the most unprecedented progress being made in lexicography. This great work soon became accepted as the arbiter of English usage and the standard for English spelling. Johnson has made fuller use of illustrative quotations than Bailey. His definitions, on the whole, are clear, concise, effective and scholarly, though some of them are characterised by his personal prejudices and individual vagaries. His definition of oats as the food for horses in England and for men in Scotland, as well as that of the cigar as a roll of tobacco with a spark at one end and a fool at the other are often quoted. Future lexicographers have benefitted greatly by the pioneering work of Johnson, and his dictionary set the model for a whole century of lexicography. A very important thing to be remembered about Johnson's dictionary is that because of the high esteem in which the lexicographer and his great work was held, the habit of treating the dictionary as the final arbiter in all matters of spelling and usage was first set up by it. However, it must be admitted that this habit of treating the dictionary as an incontestable authority in all matters relating to correct usage is not entirely good. Though Johnson has begun his great work with the avowed intention of correcting English language and though he believed that the function of a dictionary was one "by which the pronunciation of our language may be fixed and its attainment facilitated; by which its purity may be preserved, its use ascertained, and its duration lengthened", he realised, before he completed his dictionary, that English usage could not be fixed in any enduring correct form.

The next stage in the development of dictionaries in English is marked by Charles Richardson's " A New Dictionary of English Language" published in 1836. In addition to widening the scope of illustrative quotations, Richardson also attempted to indicate the historical uses of words or the meanings which they had in older stages of the language besides their contemporary sense.

NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY :

The Philological Society, founded in 1842 with the professed object of "investigating the structure, affinities, and history of language" has

been responsible for the compilation of a dictionary which is now universally recognized as the highest authority on the use of the English language. It is known as "*A New English Dictionary (NED) on Historical Principles*" or "*The Oxford English Dictionary*". It appeared in instalments over a period of forty-five years, having been begun in 1883 and completed in 1928. Its first editor Sir James Murray has contributed nearly one half of the work (over 7000 pages). Their joint editors Henry Bradley, Sir. William Cragie and C. T. Onions have helped Sir James Murray in compiling this gigantic dictionary. They have been assisted by a whole host of contributors, sub-editors and other assistants. The dictionary occupies twelve large volumes and comprises more than fifteen thousand pages. There are 414825 words in it and these are illustrated through 1,827,306 quotations. It is the greatest scientific achievement in lexicography completed so far. Here we have the whole history and semantic development of every English word known to have been used since the twelfth century. There are definitions of every word, with a history of its several different meanings to show its exact development. Each meaning is illustrated chronologically by apt quotations from different periods. Besides, each known spelling of the word, together with its present pronunciation in phonetic script, is also recorded. This dictionary is the most complete record of the whole of the English language and it enables the student to understand every aspect of its history. The fact that it is the dictionary of the British Commonwealth and of the U.S.A. is symbolized by the presentation of its first copies to King George V and President Calvin Coolidge as the heads of the two English-speaking peoples. The vocabulary is comprehensive, including denizens like aide de camp, locus etc. and aliens like shah, cicerore, backsheesh etc. and causal expressions like Italian 'podest' (magistrate) and 'shiroo' (police constable) found in books of travel. One problem which Dr. Johnson did not have to face and which the twentieth century lexicographer cannot avoid, is that of deciding which of the ever-varying technical terms regarding trades and scientific processes should be included in the dictionary. The New English Dictionary has included all technical terms which are more widely used in their special fields.

OTHER DICTIONARIES :

In giving the meanings of words the earliest recorded meaning of a word is given first and the others follow in chronological order. Each different meaning is illustrated by an apt quotation and the quotations are so arranged as to give at least one of each century. The exact names and editions of the books from which the quotations are given have been mentioned so that a reader may have the chance of studying the given passage in its original context. No other language in the world can boast of such a complete guide to usage as the New English Dictionary. The first supplement to the Dictionary was published in 1933 and in the same year a reissue appeared under title of The Oxford English

Dictionary. A transatlantic supplement to this under the title of the Dictionary of American English on Historical Principles, was produced by Sir William Craigie and James, R. Hulbert in 1944. Necessary corrections and additions are made from to time by specialized Journals like *The Bulletin of Historical Research and Transactions of the American Philological Association*. The Oxford Dictionary has been of great service in raising the standard of all the smaller dictionaries for school and home use. For ordinary working purpose the material of the Oxford Dictionary has been summarized into the two volumes of *The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*. It is further reduced for speedier consultation in *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English* and *The Little Oxford Dictionary. The Oxford Dictionary* has been made use of by the revisers of The Great American encylopaedic dictionaries like the New Webster and Funk and Wangnall's New Standard. H. C. Wyld has been able to compile his scholarly *Universal Dictionary* with the help of the Oxford Dictionary.

DANIEL JONES'S PRONOUNCING DICTIONARY :

Though the Oxford Dictionary has long been established as the highest authority in all matters of language in matters of pronunciation most foreigners depend on Daniel Jones's "*An English Pronouncing Dictionary*". Daniel Jones has the avowed intention of never becoming 'either a reformer of pronunciation or a judge', but of merely observing and recording accurately the sounds of typical Southern English people in ordinary conversation. The record is one of fact and not of theories or personal preference. Very often Jones gives two or more acceptable pronunciations in the order of frequency. His Dictionary is invaluable for the gathered information it presents on the names of places and families.

AMERICAN DICTIONARIES :

In tracing the development of Dictionaries in America we find that Noah Webster has been the pioneer in the field, with his "Compendious English Dictionary" of 1806. This follows well on the great work of Dr. Johnson. This was followed in 1828 by "Webster's American Dictionary", which laid the foundation for the great "Webster's International Dictionary". This serves as the universal working tool in America after successive revisions. A complete revision of the Webster dictionary has become a regularly recurring event in American life. After "An American Dictionary of the English Language" was produced in 1864, there followed *Webster's International Dictionary* in 1890. This, in turn, was followed by Webster's New International Dictionary in 1909 and its second edition in 1934. *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* was published in 1961.

In evaluating Webster's Third International Dictionary which has occasioned extremes of critical comment from admirers and denouncers,

we have to bear in mind the two traditions in English lexicography. The earlier of these traditions is that of Dr. Johnson the compiler of the famous 1755 "Dictionary of the English Language". He considered the lexicographer as a sort of linguistic legislator or arbiter, if not absolute dictator. The later and opposite tradition is that of the lexicographer as the objective recorder of the language. For the English-speaking nations this concept was first realised in the New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. The purpose of the Dictionary is stated in the following words:—"The aim of this dictionary is to present in alphabetical series the words which have formed the English vocabulary from the time of the earliest records down to the present day, with all the relevant facts concerning their form, sense, history, pronunciation and etymology. It embraces not only the standard language of literature and conversation, whether current at the moment or obsolete or archaic but also the main technical vocabulary, and a large measure of dialectal usage and slang". This shows that the compilers of the Dictionary have no intention of fixing the language or of prescribing any particular usage. What is set down is a record of the actual usage. Uniformity in usage is a remote possibility in the case of a language like English, spoken by more than two hundred and seventy million people and spread over five continents of the globe. As far as a language like English is concerned the linguistic reports and legislators are likely to appear to be working at cross purposes. The statements or principles which are found in the Webster dictionaries are moving steadily away from the Johnsonian or prescriptive concept of lexicography towards the descriptive position of the Oxford Dictionary editors. In the words of Dr. Isaac. K. Funk, as stated in the preface to the 1913 "Standard Dictionary of the English Language": —"The chief function of a dictionary is to record usage." As C.A. Goodrich, the chief editor of the first major revison of the Webster Dictionary after Webter's death asserted, "The chief value of a dictionary consists in its Definitions, in giving a clear, full, and accurate exhibition, of all the various shades of meaning which, belong, by established usage, to the words of a language".

FOWLER'S DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH USAGE :

This conception of custom and established usage as the final test of linguistic correctness has found a full and individualistic expression in H. W. Fowler's "A Dictionary of Modern English Usage", first published in 1926 and revised in 1930 and 1937. It is now a standard work of reference and enjoys a position of authority which the author had never hoped to achieve. The influence of Fowler's work is evident in the popular handbooks on usage published by writers like Robert Graves, Eric Partridge, Sir Alan Herbert and Sir Ernest Gowers. They have presented challenging, provocative and original views on current speech and the popularity of their books proves an overgrowing awarenes of the power of words. While these writers repeatedly state that they are merely

recording the facts of everyday English usage, pointing out how men actually speak and not how men ought to speak, they cannot help becoming the arbiters of good speech inspite of themselves. In short, while established usage is theoretically accepted as the criterion of correctness in speech, the reputable dictionary like 'The Oxford English Dictionary' is regarded more than even before as the authority in practice.

Q. 43. Write an essay on the nature and evolution of Standard English.

Ans. English is a language now spoken by millions of men and women spread over the entire world, belonging to different social classes and following different occupations. It is as much the speech of the Cockney bus conductor and of the butcher's boy as it is of the masters at Winchester or Harrow or the precise Oxford don. In other words it includes the speech which is neglected and degenerate, in sounds or in words or both, as well as the finely modulated and eloquent periods of the cultivated and scholarly. All these different speakers of English neither use identical sounds nor employ the same vocabulary. But because all of them are shares of English speech they influence it to a certain extent. Besides these different classes of people using the English language, the writers, the poets, the scholars, the journalists and the speakers on the radio influence it to some extent.

THREE CURRENTS OF THE RIVER OF ENGLISH :

As we move from one social class to another or from one part of the country to another we cannot help becoming conscious of the separate currents in the broad river of English-speech. Of the three main currents which are discernible, the first is that of the local dialects, which are well-defined in character and confined to restricted areas. The second is that of a form of English speech spoken by some people in all parts of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland, while the third represents the speech of majority of people in each region, more or less closely related to the second current but lacking its uniformity, and bearing traces of affinity to one or another of the local dialects. The last two forms of English speech are commonly known as standard English. Professor H. C. Wyld distinguishes the second from the third by the term "Received Standard" while he uses the term "Modified Standard" for the third.

STANDARD ENGLISH :

Of these three forms of speech, the last two which constitute Standard English only are of any importance now. Though Englishmen of all ranks spoke their respective regional dialects till the fifteenth century, written English began acquiring a single standard form after the introduction of printing and the fixation of spelling by the printers. The dialects have gradually lost their importance and have become more and more over-ridden by Standard English, so that they are now mixtures of Standard and dialect forms. Standard English rose into prominence as the speech

of the metropolitan population and gradually spread over the whole country. Between the end of the Middle Ages and the close of the 16th century there were rapid changes occurring in the shapes and sounds of English words and affecting particularly the pronunciation of the vowels. By the end of the 16th century however, the language had become Standardized in the form it still retains, except for minor modifications in spelling and pronunciation. Though this Standard English had at first been affected, to some extent, by local varieties of speech, any change which has come over it during the last three centuries, has been due to the influence of various forms of Modified Standard. What Professor Wyld designates as Received Standard is the speech of more socially fortunate and best educated people. As it is the speech of the products of the English public school education, it is often referred to as Public School English. It is also the speech of the by-products of the Public School System. It is more uniform in pronunciation than the Modified Standards.

MODIFIED ENGLISH :

Modified Standard which is spoken by the majority of people in England is the most important variety of English now in use. It may be defined as the speech of that large number of people who have been brought up in a regional or occupational dialect and have corrected its sounds and usages in the light of the Received Standard taught in School and Colleges. However, they have not succeeded in achieving anything more than a compromise between their original speech and the Standard English aimed at. It is seen that this Modified Standard has innumerable shades and varieties and its speakers far out-number those who use the Received Standard. It is also seen that every form of Modified Standard is closely related to its counterparts in other regions as well as Received Standard. The compass of Modified Standard in each region is a wide one, ranging from a speech hardly distinguishable from Received Standard to the inferior speech of slum-dwellers in the city and of the villagers whose immediate ancestors spoke the regional dialect.

GOOD ENGLISH :

In speaking about Standard English one question which is usually asked is "What is good English, and what is the relation of Standard English to other forms of good English?" The answer to the question is that good English is "the English of the educated classes used without self-consciousness".[1] It is presupposed that such educated people would have well assimilated the good traditions of English speech, would have discipline enough to avoid vagueness or jargon or cliches and would have developed their personality in such a way as to use the resources of the language fully. They would naturally use that relatively uniform pronunciation which is becoming current generally, with the sensitiveness

1. C.T. Wrenn : *The English Language.*

of ear which would prevent sounds and usages ugly or harsh to the majority of people. It is also to be remembered that the term 'Received Standard' applies to the educated speech of England, so far as pronunciation is concerned. There are many other types of 'good English' used by speakers of the language outside England, like that of Edinburgh in Scotland, or of Pennsylvania or New York in America. However, so far as the written language is concerned, we find that there is relative unity among the more educated users of English the whole world over. Good English, therefore has to be taken to mean what educated speakers use—not what they ought to use according to notions of grammar or lexicon.

STANDARD ENGLISH SUPERIOR :

Though it is true that the needs of modern life call for the use of a universally clear and apprehensible form of English and though it would seem desirable that a Received Standard of pronunciation should be learned and used by all, there is nothing superior in this form of good English when compared with other regional dialects. Standard English is preferred by speakers all over the world because it is not a local dialect and because it has qualities far superior to those of any regional dialect. The superior place now assigned to Standard English among the varieties of English speech today is the result of speech, snobbery, but of common sense. However it is true that 'Received Standard', being the speech of the best educated Englishmen, has a social value which is of some material advantage to the speaker. Hence it is continually imitated and cultivated for the sake of the social status it confers on the speakers. So Received Standard is all the time gaining at the expense of the Modified Standard which, having no social prestige to confer, gradually becomes neglected and degenerate.

FUTURE OF STANDARD ENGLISH :

Till some four hundred years ago, the conditions in England were not favourable for the growth of a standard form of the language. Since that time, it has gradually spread over the whole of the British Isles and to the English speaking countries beyond the seas. Of late, conditions have become quite favourable for bringing about greater uniformity in speech. Universal education, rapid and frequent movement from place to place, and broadcasting have brought people of all classes into closer contact than ever before. As a result of this there will be a greater degree of standardization of English in Britain in the future. It is also likely that the characteristics of Received Standard would prevail more and more, with the passing of time.

It is now recognized that the real life of language lies in its speech, though formerly the written tradition alone was considered worthy of being studied. Inspite of the great change which has recently taken place in the attitude towards the spoken language, the technique of teaching

speech is still not quite developed. Bernard Shaw and many other lovers of the language have wanted Englishmen to develop a pride in their own native speech and it is to be expected that good speech habits will be more strenuously cultivated in schools and colleges in future. This will lead to greater degree of standardization of speech than at present.

STANDARD ENGLISH CLOSE TO WRITTEN FORM :

The written form of the language is more self-conscious and less spontaneous than the spoken one. It is also more conservative in nature, lagging behind the spoken language in pronunciation and idiom. It has been compared to a kind of drag-anchor acting upon speech's slowing down its rate of change, and also imparting to it some of its own characteristics. It is also subject to new influences from speech. Standard English which has always maintained close contact with written English will continue to have a character which is not far removed from the written form, which though readily admitting changes in vocabulary, is stoutly opposed to innovations in grammatical structure.

STANDARD ENGLISH SUBJECT TO CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT :

Like every living language, Standard English is subject to change and development. Sound change, whether due to some alteration in the speech habits of the speakers, or due to the influence of one sound upon another, is nearly always an unconscious operation, going on all the time in all spoken languages. Change in grammatical structure is another very important factor which can alter the nature of Standard English. A third kind of change is the change in vocabulary, consisting in the discarding of old words from time to time and the adoption of new ones, either freshly coined or borrowed from another language. Of these three changes, the change in vocabulary is the most obvious. The makers of new words who enrich the vocabulary of Standard English include the poets, the scholars, the scientists and the creators of slang terms. The poet contributes to the vocabulary new words of sensuous content to convey his imagery, as Milton has done in coining 'gloom', 'pandemonium' etc. The scholar manufactures new terms, as Bentham coined 'international' and Newton coined 'centrifugal'. The scientists and the inventors devise new terms by which to describe their discoveries and inventions. Words like sputnik, space station, cinematography etc. have thus been formed. The common man, with no claims to literary or scientific genius, also becomes the author of new and picturesque words which are usually called slang terms and which in course of time, find their way into Standard English.

LITERARY ARTISTS AND STANDARD ENGLISH :

Though the great masters of English literature have been the makers of a considerable proportion of English words, the literary artists at the present day do not hold the place that they once had in the making of English vocabulary. Today the thinker and scientist are contributing more

to the enriching of the vocabulary of Standard English. The former tends to make English more precise and abstract, while the latter contributes to it, what we usually call technical jargon. The common man also makes his contribution of vivid words and phrases which express feelings and images more directly and vigorously than the wornout phrases and idioms of Standard English. Because of their picturesque nature these words and phrases, loosely termed as slang, which is defined as "language of a highly colloquial type, considered as below the level of Standard educated speech and consisting either of new words or of current words used in some special sense", find their way into Standard English in course of time.

To sum up, what has already been said about Standard English, it is seen that though the unifying influences like travel, reading, the schools and broadcasting are more powerful than they ever were before and though we can expect the English speech to become more Standardized and homogeneous throughout Great Britain and the rest of the English-speaking world in course of time, there is no possibility of its becoming completely uniform or static. No two persons speak exactly alike and there will always be variations in speech between persons and between speech communities. As different kinds of words are continually falling out of use and new ones are being coined from time to time as a result of precise deliberation, or the effects of poetic genius, or the creations of popular fancy, the vocabulary of English is continually undergoing change. Pronunciation too is imperceptibly changing because of the inherent nature of language. Hence Standard English like other living languages, is likely to undergo change and development, and cannot be expected to remain as it is at present.

Q. 44. Briefly discuss the various influences acting upon Standard English at present.

Ans. Standard English which arose as the speech of the metropolis and has been gradually spread over the whole of the English speaking world as the best educated form of the language, is like every other living tongue, subject to changes brought about by the various influences acting on it. The chief among these is the form of English which has been developed on the other side of the Atlantic in America, and which now has characteristics so distinct from British English. The divergencies between the two forms of English, named British and American, have become so great as to make Bernard Shaw refer to Great Britain and the United States of America as "two great countries separated by the same language." The independent development of American English in matters relating to grammar, spelling and usage has come to exert some influence upon the staid and sober British English. The Radio is another modern influence affecting the nature of Standard English. A third influence

upon the language is the newspaper with its sensational jargon and witty expressions calculated to appeal to the popular imagination. The film industry also enriches the vocabulary with new additions from time to time. Besides these we find that regional and occupational dialects as well as slang have got some influence on Standard English. What is considered a dialect word or a slang term at present, may, in course of time, find acceptance in Standard English. This is proved by the fact that many words which now form part of the vocabulary of Standard English had been considered low or vulgar or incorrect a generation ago.

AMERICAN ENGLISH :

American English being the most important of the influences acting upon the Standard speech of Britain, can be considered first. According to Professor Ernest Weekly "the foreign language which has most affected English in our own time is contemporary American".[1] American English is characterised by the use of metaphors drawn from the vocabulary of the explorer, the prospector, the railway pioneer and the big business man. From these Standard English slowly adopts expressions like snag, bedrock, side track, wash out, big money, boom, slump etc. American police methods have enriched the English language with the term 'third degree' while it is in an American court that the expression 'a frame-up' has been first used.

The Americans, with their love of terseness and impressionism have contributed many slang expressions to the English vocabulary. These have been popularized by the printed cinema programme and the spoken language of the pyjama comedy which find their way to England and are imitated by the young people. It is in this way that words like crook, crank, bluff, pep, stunt, blurb, dope-fiend, high-brown, rubber-neck, sob-stuff, wise, crack etc. have entered British English. Besides tendency towards monosyllabism and impressionism, there is, in American English, a leaning towards the polysyllabic, elaborate and fantastic words. The American is fond of using the word 'preposition' for almost any abstract noun because it is quite impressive in sound. The expression 'ivory-domed' is used for 'brainless' and 'cat's pyjamas' is a vivid description of the consummate. We also come across hyperbolical expressions from across the Atlantic in "till hell freezes" and in "greased lighting".

American English has also been responsible for the promotion of prepositions to the positions of something like a very significant part of speech, as in up against for it, out for etc. We now come across many virtual compounds which are the result of combining a verb with a preposition of adverb. Put up, (for parliament or at an inn) to put it across to give a person away, to get away with it, are all expressions which have come from American English. Judging by the contributions it has already made to the enriching and re-vitalizing of British English,

1. Ernest Weekly : *The English Language* ·

we are justified in assuming that it will continue to exert the same kind of influence on the speech of Britain.

RADIO AND CINEMA :

The radio and the cinema are two other influences on the English language at present. Though the spreading of English to the various parts of the world, the coming of the cheap newspaper press, and universal schooling have helped to standardize written English to such an extent that a speaker of Canadian, Australian or Indian English uses the same written form of the language, their speech differs from one another much in pronunciation, rhythm and intonation. Inspite of the standardization of the written form, English is still so variously pronounced in different parts of the world and spoken with such heterogeneousness of form that the native idioms of English, in many places, have become so interlarded with many local elements as to be in danger of disintegration and fragmentation. Among the standardizing agencies which counterbalance the tendency to disintegration, perhaps the most important is broadcasting. The setting up of the official center of the B.B.C. in London has been very helpful in the conservation of Standard English. Side by side with printing, broadcasting has been a means of making the language universally accessible. The influence of trained and officially directed announcers is very great in acting as an effective obstacle to the disintegration of spoken English. The broadcasting house and its off-shoots including the Advisory Committee of experts on pronunciation who guide and counsel the announcers cannot, however, influence the standardizing of the spoken form of the language to the same extent as printing has influenced the standardizing of the written form. Nevertheless, it must be acknowledged that the constant hearing of a correct and conventionalised form of speech is likely to serve as a conserving influence, especially in those parts of the world where English is spoken as a second language. To the large majority of people who listen to the radio, the B.B.C. announcer represents the voice of authority in matters of pronunciation and right usage. But even the B.B.C. has been quite realistic in recognising by its regional division of programmes that there is more than one form of 'good English' as spoken at present in different areas.

An indirect influence of the radio on English is seen in the recent developments in the approach to English, and in a growing interest in the nature of speech and in the need for clear and pleasing utterance as well as the ability to express one's thoughts in effective words. These have led to the formation of societies for the training of speech, the study of speech therapy and an increased interest in phonetic and the teaching of good habits of speech to children and adults alike. On the whole, it may be said that broadcasting now serves as the most universally accessible and effective means by which speakers of English all over the world are helped and encouraged to conform to the Received Standard of English.

While the great quickening of interest in English as a spoken language is characteristic of our time, the film industry has a considerable influence on the vocabulary of Standard English which it constantly enriches by the spreading and popularising of new words and turns of expression, particularly vivid phrases and picturesque words; introduced through new films, either from some regional or occupational dialect or from slang. As America has been taking the lead in the production of films, many typical American words have been introduced into English already by way of the popular American films. But as the influence of the cinema is primarily visual, it cannot exert upon the language the same influence as the radio. Still, it can continue to serve as a medium through which the 'cant' of different social classes or the technical jargon of scientists can enter Standard English.

SLANGS :

Words which are usually designated as slang terms have slowly but steadily been making their way into Standard English. Their vividl metaphorical nature as well as their terseness and impressionism make them welcome additions to the vocabulary of Standard English which becomes dull and wornout by frequent use. We have innumerable examples of slang words being accepted as part of Standard English vocabulary after having been popularised through colloquial use. Boy and girl were both slang terms before the thirteenth century, and it was only in the 14th century that 'grin' found its way into accepted usage. 'Queer' found its way into correct usage in the fifteenth century while jump and squander were taken in the 16th. Slump and sham belonged to slang till the 17th century and the same was the case with donkey and humbug till the 18th. Gadget, grouse, scrounge, jazz, O.K. are twentieth century additions to the vocabulary from slang.

UNIVERSAL SCHOOLING :

Another influence on Standard English, which has resulted in the growth of several modified Standards besides the Received Standard, is universal schooling. The children who have been brought up to speak various regional and occupational dialects are constantly living in a state of bilingualism during their school days. The schoolmaster's scrupulous attempts to teach them Standard English result in their acquiring Modified Standard which partakes of the qualities of Received Standard as well as those of their particular dialect. In many instances Received Standard has been enriched and is invigorated by words and turns of expression, which have been brought into it from different dialects by way of Modified Standard.

REVIVAL OF INTEREST IN THE STUDY OF GRAMMAR :

Another influence which has been acting upon Standard English in recent times is the revival of interest in the study of grammar and a respect for learned authority in matters relating to usage. After the first World War there was a wide-spread tendency in England to cast aside the restrictions imposed by the rules of grammar. The text books on

English grammar written by Latinate schoolmasters who had established the tradition of teaching formal grammar in English schools, were condemned on the ground that the leaning to a Latin Standard in syntax would be a check on natural usage in English. The most serious result of this neglect of formal grammar was that there was a general slackness in the use of English, a looseness of style coupled with inaccuracy and lack of clarity and a general vagueness and ambiguity. Lovers of the language soon come to realize that the teaching of formal English grammar was generally necessary for the development of powers of effective self-expression. Since English has not yet been able to evolve a new grammatical terminology it has been wisely decided to follow the old terminology which is better than any new one which could be invented. Thus the study of formal grammar and revival of interest in it has been exerting a beneficial influence upon English language in recent times.

TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCE :

Technological advance in science, and modern methods of warfare and journalism are other influences which result in the addition of new words and expressions to the vocabulary of Standard English. During the last two centuries the new scientific discoveries and inventions have given us words like allergy, anaemia, anaesthetic, antibiotic, atomic energy, bacteriology, hormones, genes, diptheria, morphine, ultra-violet rays, heart transplantation, germicide, radioactivity, nuclear weapons, sputnic, orbit, space ship, module and a host of others. The two great World Wars have also brought in many new words and popularised the use of many others already existing in the language. Jetplane, radar, hand grenade, machinegun, blitz, dug-out, tank, air-raid, anti-air craft gun etc. are examples of these. Many other words have been formed by the agglomeration of initials of abbreviation of compounds as in gestapo, oppu, ARP, RAF, UNESCO etc. Newspaper reporters and journalists whose aim is to use eye-catching headlines and vivid, racy and colloquial expressions which will appeal to the majority of readers, have yielded a rich crop of words to the English vocabulary. Such expressions as ousting a bad character, backing a person or party, combing an area for an escaping convict have all been popularized by newspaper reporters. They have also been responsible for giving a new sense to the word 'gesture', about the end of the World War I.

To sum up, it is seen that Standard English is considerably influenced, at present, by American English, the language used in broadcasting, the language of the newspapers and journals of the day, the language of the scientists and technological experts and telling words and phrases from slang and dialectal forms of English. The increased interest in the study of speech and speech-therapy, the deliberate attempt to conform to the accepted standard, and the results of universal schooling have also influenced the Standard English spoken today.

Q. 45. What is American English ? In what respect does it differ from British English ?

Ans. Bernard Shaw has spoken of Great Britain and the United States of America as "two great countries separated by the same language". The truth is that in these two countries, at present, two different forms of what had originally been one and the same language, are being spoken. It is vitally important for English speech and to the future of the English-speaking people that the different forms of English spoken on the two sides of the Atlantic should be made to coalesce. For achieving this it is necessary that Englishmen should get rid of their prejudices against American English and the Americanisms which are constantly invading British English at present.

Those who wish to preserve the well of English undefiled by American influence, should do well to remember that a good deal of Americanism now imported into Britain in the modern liner (including expressions like flap, jack, for sleek) had crossed the Atlantic in the opposite direction in the "May flower" during the 17th century. They must also remember that many words which they regarded as having originated on English soil are in reality those of American birth (like belittle, lengthy, talented, influential, to engineer, co-education, requirement, scientist etc.) The word reliable which, in the nineteenth century, was believed to be an Americanism for 'trustworthy' was used in England two centuries earlier than the latter, according to the compilers of the *New English Dictionary*. Though popular American, in its most jazzy and coloured innovations in idioms, sounds and vocabulary, happens to be quiet different from any variety of degenerate English, and though both are equally distant from the best English and American forms of speech, there is very little difference between the literary English used on one side of the Atlantic and that used on the other.

DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN ENGLISH :

In the more than three centuries which have passed since the first English settlements were made in America, American English and British English have developed in divergent ways. Many old usages of English characteristic of 17th century have survived in Standard American. Besides, American English has developed new ways of speech partly through differing conditions of life and partly through the many influences from languages in the process of the absorption of large bodies of

immigrants from different lands into the population of the colonies. Apart from the many differences in the shades of meaning in the common stock and share of English vocabulary, there is a primary difference between American English and British English in the rhythm and intonation of speech. As a result of the first characteristic we find the word 'politician' being, used in a disparaging sense in America. Also the word 'solicitor' standing for a very honoured member of the legal profession in British English, is used in the sense of a canvasser, a visiting agent or even a beggar in American. A 'clerk' in American most often means a shop- assistant. ..

INFLUENCE OF AMERICAN ENGLISH ON BRITISH ENGLISH :

As a result of the differences in rhythm and intonation of speech, the American hears what he calls clipped syllables in educated London, and the English man complains of a sort of drawl and nasal tone in the speech of the educated American. However, increased intercourse between the two countries in recent times has resulted in levelling down the differences considerably. America's leading position in commerce, finance, and film industry has produced a body of slang in England, having its origin in America. Some of these have already penetrated to good colloquial usage and even into Standard English. For example, the use of the word 'cut' in the sense of reduction was originally American. But it has now become fixed in good English largely through the financial slump of 1931 in Britain. 'Sense' as a verb is another importation from America and many 17th century expressions which have already been discarded as archaisms in British English, have recently been accepted into Standard English through American influence. The English and American usages are beautifully combined together in the famous speech of Winston Churchill beginning with "With the fall of the autumn leaves." 'Gotten' as the past participle of 'get' is another 17th century survival in American English. The most marked American influence which is still continually increasing in the slang of the younger generation in Britain and colloquial English which springs from a selection of these. The films are responsible for introducing into English these American expressions which are noted for their vividness and force. Such expressions naturally appeal to the young who are always eager for new linguistic experience. Among metaphorical usages in Good English which are from America and which are older than the film indusry are expressions like 'to get down to brass tacks' and the word 'fix' in such a sentence as 'try and fix it so that the prisoner escapes'. Newspaper and commercial works have begun to employ the word 'executive' as a noun under American influence. Again the expression "the party machine" is characteristic of America because the use of 'machine' in this sense was unknown in British English. Other American expressions which are finding their way into Standard English, are 'framed up' (made-up), 'the blues' (for the mood of depression to pass out, to faint, or to die), OK.

and the noun 'pull' in the sense of special individual influence. There are again hordes of slang terms from the film industry and from American low life and gangsterdom. On the whole it may be said that American influence has helped to re-vitalise and to re-invigorate British English, especially through the use of vivid metaphor. But on the other hand these vivid expressions originally intended for occasions of special emphasis and strength of language, may become used later as mere stereotyped phrases. In that case they would look like an impoverishment of speech and not an enrichment. This is specially seen in the language of popular British journalism which the superfluous use of American expressions is a thing to be deplored.

SIMILARITY OF AMERICAN AND BRITISH ENGLISH :

It is a fact that the literary language of the U.S.A. and that of Great Britain are more or less the same. At least they have not diverged perceptibly so as to give the feeling that British English and American English are two entirely different things. Washington Irving, Edgar Allan Poe and Nathaniel Hawthorne tried hard to write impeccable Standard English. Henry James, L. P. Smith and T. S. Eliot, though born in America, have been intellectually more at home in Europe, and hence, have tried to follow the traditional way of writing good English. Critics like Edmund Wilson, E. E. Stoll, Douglas Bush and other writers write very much like their British models namely George Saintsbury, A. C. Bradley and Sir Herbert Grierson. English literature at present may be said to include all excellent and memorable writing in the English language regardless of political and geographical boundaries.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AMERICAN AND BRITISH ENGLISH :

However, we find considerable divergences between American and British English in spelling, vocabulary and pronunciation as well as in the syntax of the lower levels of speech and these have to be explained and accounted for.

SPELLING :

To consider spelling first, we find that the distinctive features of American spelling are mainly the legacy left by Noah Webster (1751-1843) whose American Spelling Book appeared in 1783 and was followed by his "American Dictionary of the English Language" in 1828. "Commonsense and convenience", he said, had led him to write Public, favor, nabor, hed, proov, flem, hiz (hiss), giv, det, ruf, wel etc. instead of the traditional British spelling for these words. But because Noah Webster wanted a market for his new book on both sides of the Atlantic, he later modified his drastic spelling changes considerably. Today the second unabridged edition of *Webster's International Dictionary* is the official spelling guide of the Government printing office and the accepted authority in all American courts. It sanctions such changes as or instead of -our (honor, humor, valor) -er for -re center, fiber, caliber, menter,

theater, singular consonants for double ones in words like traveller, jewellery, wagon, s for c in defence, offence, practice and simplified spelling like ax, catalog, Check, mask, program, story, tho, thru, thoro and today. In general, these modified spellings are sound and sensible and as a result many of these have already found acceptance in British English. In Standard English at present we find spellings like public, jail and these spellings have been accepted in all agent substantives except saviour and paviour.

VOCABULARY :

The English man arriving for the first time in the U.S.A. becomes unduly aware of differences of vocabulary between his language and that of the U.S.A. because these differences loom large in the language of travel and transport. He is told that he has to travel by rail and not by train, and instead of 'registering his luggage he is told to 'check his baggage'. The luggage van of the train is referred to as the 'baggage car'. He looks for a notice-board, but finds a bulletin board, and asking for a timetable he gets a schedule. The driver of a train is the engineer, and the guard is the conductor. A railway station is the railroad depot. The car is invariably an automobile and it is taken to a gas station for being supplied with petrol. Instead of accelerating you are told to step on the gas, and at your hotel, you find that the fifth floor means what you call the 4th floor. But these difficulties are not such as cannot be easily removed and are not very formidable to any intelligent traveller, although somebody has said that an American travelling in England, if he is suddenly taken ill in the streets, might die without getting any help because of the impossibility of making himself understood. It is not quite true of modern times. The films and American Literature have made people in England quite familiar with the new words and terms of expression popular in America at the time.

USE OF OLD WORDS AND PRONUNCIATION IN AMERICAN ENGLISH :

One reason why American English, differs from British English is that in the U.S.A. many features of the language of the 17th century English settlers have been retained as such. For example old senses of words, old words and phrases and old pronunciations which have disappeared from British English are retained in American. Lowell points out how many distinctive features of New England dialect are the survivals of 17th century forms of language. For example we find words life critter (creature), figger (figure,) git (get), jine (join), ketch (catch), sartin (certain), varmint (vermin) and also afeared (afraid), bug (insect) fall (autumn), loan (as a verb,) brag, burly, deft, clod-hopper, hustle etc.

In addition to these survivals from 17th century English we find in American English words from the language of other peoples with whom the English colonists came into contact. From the Red Indian catalpa, (a flowering tree) hickory, tapioca, canor, moccasin, tomahawk, wig-wam,

papoose etc. have been borrowed. Also there are American terms which are translated from Red Indian language like fire-water, pale-face, pipe of peace and warpath. From the French in America were borrowed words like levee, seep, shanty, prairie, rapids, portage, and caribou. From Spanish have come creole, mulatto, quadroon, octoroon, barbacue, stamped, canyon, chile, ranch, sombrero, and corral. From Dutch have been borrowed boss, cold, slaw, cookie, cruller, Santa Claus, and waffle. From German, dumb (slow, stupid), fresh loaf, loafer, Frank-furter, hamburger, and delicatessan were borrowed. From Irish, cadger, to let on (pretend), grumpy, jaw (impudent talk) wad (bundle), to quit (stop) etc. have taken.

The American pioneers also invented new uses for older English words as in run (book), bluff (steep, broad-faced headland), clearing (cleared land), rolling country (undulating plains). American plant and animal life also required the invention of new names like eel, grass, blue grass, egg plant and monkey nut. The resourcefulness of the pioneers can be seen in the new names they invented to suit new conditions of existence as in log-cabin, frame house, back-woods, land slide, and pine-knot. To blaze a trails (which literally meant indicating a trail by marking trees with white or by stripping off the bark, of the trees), blizzard, a back number, backgone (courage), beeline, belittle blue laws, to bluff, bogus, to boom, to boost, brainy, campus, cocktail, to cave in (yield), to clear out, (depart) contraband cowcatcher (the pilot of a railway engine), grit, hayseed (rustic fellow) are other interesting words and expressions brought into by pioneer settlers in America. From American politics we have words like gubernatorical, bolter from one's party, dark horse, favourite son, floater, henchman, land slide, party machine, wire pulling, etc.

In spite of all that has been said it has still to be admitted that :—(1) American vocabulary is in the main the same as English, (2) that even when it differs from the English it can be understood with a little effort, (3) specifically American objects and ideas are becoming more and more familiar to English day by day. The Literary American used by H. L. Meneke Morley etc. differs from Received or Standard English in using such words as a garbage can and suspenders for a dust-bin and braces, as well as in a fresher use of metaphor, a slightly less logical and somewhat less musical sentence building, as also in a certain disregard of the meanings of shall and will, can and may, would and should, if and though, and each other and one another. It is also characterised by a fondness for the subjunctive mood and a more hospitable attitude towards slang.

PRONUNCIATION IN AMERICAN ENGLISH :

Of late increase of travel, broadcasting and other means of communication between the two countries have tended to halt the differentiation. About the pronunciation of American English, we may

say that the following features are outstanding in marking out American English from British English. In words like four, door, farm and lord the letter r is still sound in American English as a fricative, whereas in British English it is kept silent except when immediately followed by a vowel. Also Americans pronounce words like dance, fast, grass, half and path with the low front 'ae' heard in cat, sat etc. Again in American pronunciation words like dock, fog, hot and rod are pronounced with a lowback 'a' as heard in father (shortened). Words like due and steward are pronounced as if the first syllable contained a (u:) sound. Again the 't' sounds in beating, matter and metal become voiced sounds very much like 'd'. Again word stress and sentence stress are both weaker in American pronunciation and intonation is more level. American speech is therefore more monotonous in sound, but at the same time is generally more distinct. Unstressed syllables are pronounced with more measured detachment and hence with greater clarity than in British English.

On the whole, we feel that American English is more slow in utterance and contains a nasal wang. Also in certain parts of America they speak so slowly as to drag out and diphthongise the stressed vowels; instead of 'yes' we hear 'yeis' and instead of 'class' they will say 'kleis'. However, because American families and speech communities never remain in isolation from their fellows, the difference in pronunciation between one dialect and another is much less discernible in America, than in England. The differences among the speech forms of Northern England between the Trent and the Tweed can be said to be greater than those existing among the dialects of the whole of North America.

UNIFICATION OF AMERICAN AND BRITISH ENGLISH :

It is now customary for American and British scholars and scientists to co-operate in the writing of composite book for the whole English speaking world, and the councils of learned societies now in existence have also helped much to standardise technical nomenclature. Future historian may well record that it was from 1800—1925 that British English and American English showed the greatest divergence and that after 1925 unifying factors like the radio and the interchange of films, novels, journals and plays have worked together to make the divergences narrower and narrower. Films and newspapers particularly have helped to bring the latest American slang to England. It is hard these days to distinguish between a slang or colloquial expression which is used in England and has been imported from America and another which has actually originated in England. In 1942 the U.S.A. war department had published "A Short Guide to Great Britain" including a long list of American and British variants of particular words and expressions. A dictionary of modern American usage (H.W. Horwill) and the Anglo-American Interpreter have also helped British English and American English to be easily understood by speakers of either. At the present day

even without such help one can hear the most fashionable American terms all over England within the space of a few weeks after their origin in America. But most of them die out altogether within a short period though a few may find their way into Standard English. American cinema still continues to flood England with American neologisms. Vividness and force in metaphorical expressions are characteristic of most American words. A selection of these have been absorbed into Standard English from time to time. Some of the American expressions like 'to get down to brass tacks', business-executive, party machine and pass out are older than the cinema. On the whole, American English may be said to revitalise and reinvigorate English speech.

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Q. 46. Write an essay on slang.

Ans. *The Westminster Desk Companion* defines slang as "word or expression in common colloquial use but not regarded as Standard English," and "Jargon peculiar to certain sections of public, trades etc". *The Oxford English Dictionary* gives a fuller definition of slang as "language of a highly colloquial type considered as below the level of standard educated speech and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense". Webster describes it as "language comprising certain widely current but usually ephemeral terms having a forced, fantastic, or grotesque meaning exhibiting eccentric or extravagant humour or fancy". Slang can be considered to be a kind of speech which stands below colloquialisms but above cant. The relationship between Standard English and the lower levels of speech like colloquialism; slang and cant can be understood from the fact that a cant word which gains wider currency becomes accepted as slang, while slang which is widely used, becomes colloquialism and colloquialism which is widely accepted, finds its way into Standard English. It is possible for a word which becomes used as the cant of a section of the community to become more and more widely used till at last it gains admission to the vocabulary of Standard English, for the Standard English words 'man', 'broke', 'cove' and 'cully' were first used as cant terms and these were later promoted as slang. Other slang terms for man are guy, stiff and bozo while the colloquial term is 'chap'. 'Doctor' in colloquial language is 'doc' and the slang terms for the word are vet, croaker and pillshooter. The 'clergyman' of Standard English becomes parson in colloquial use and 'amen wallah', 'fire escapes' and 'sky pilot' in slang.

From the few examples quoted above it is clear that slang, which is the quintessance of colloquial speech, is determined by convenience and fancy and that it is not governed by grammatical rules, scientific laws or philosophical ideals. Colloquial speech provides the germinating ground and the fertile soil for the growth of slang. According to Henry Bradley the two most important impulses which lead to the invention of slang are "the desire to secure increased vivacity and the desire to secure increased sense of intimacy in the use of language." Slang germinates and flourishes best in conditions of "crowding and excitement and artificial life".

REASONS FOR USE OF SLANG :

In his valuable work "Slang today and Yesterday" Eric Partridge points

out as many as sixteen reasons for the use of slang. People who are young in spirit or young in years may use slang for the sheer joy of living. Others may use it as an exercise in humour or wit and ingenuity or simply to be different from others or to be more picturesque in speech. Sometimes slang is employed to make one's language more arresting or sensational and at other times merely to avoid cliches. The desire for brevity, conciseness or ease of social intercourse may also be the reason for using slang. Slang is sometimes used to show that one belongs to a certain social class or profession or to prove that someone else does not. It may happen that slang is used to amuse a superior or to reach down to the level of an inferior or to be on the same speech level as one's audience on any given occasion. It is seen that slang is at times used to lessen the bluntness of a refusal or rejection or conversely, to give additional point to the same. It can help much to disperse or lessen the solemnity or pomposity of a conversation or piece of writing. It enables one to endure the inevitability of death or the crushing blow of madness. On the whole, it serves to enrich the language though this purposive, deliberate use of slang is confined to the well-educated.

ACCEPTANCE OF SLANG :

The use of slang now meets with much less disapproval than in the previous century. In the first quarter of the nineteenth century slang was referred to by one writer as "the conversation of fools." Being of a vague and ill-defined nature, slang was supposed to destroy the delicate shades of meaning which one looks for in a good style. This view however is not correct, because most slang words are seen to be unconventional synonyms of conventional words. According to H. C. Wyld, slang which is part of familiar and colloquial speech, is neither incorrect nor vulgar when used in its proper place, namely, familiar conversation. When it is used in good written English most writers put it within quotation marks to indicate that it does not belong to the vocabulary of Standard English, though it is used to create a particular atmosphere or to make a characterisation more true to life. It was not by sheer accident that the first serious collection of slang in English was compiled by Francis Grose under the title of "A Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue" in 1785, on the eve of the French Revolution when people were becoming more interested in the ways and words of the lower classes. In the present day we have developed a more scientific attitude towards slang, regarding it as a series of speech forms which has its own right to exist and constitutes the most productive source of new expressions.

CLASSIFICATION OF SLANG :

Eric Partridge divides slang into four classes. Out of these two are undesirable while the other two are indisputably useful. The two bad classes of slang are ephemeral kind, living on the lips of men but for a few months or years and the other which includes survivals of "thieves'

Latin". These two varieties of slang are responsible for the dislike which people of delicate taste feel for slang in general. The other classes of slang which serve a useful purpose, include, on the one hand, old and forgotten phrases and words, which, having lain dead and unused for a long time, are given a new lease of life. On the other hand are new words and phrases which are vigorous and expressive but not yet admitted into the standard vocabulary. Many words and phrases from the latter class move up into the standard vocabulary in due course. While slang terms like 'booze' (to drink to excess) and 'rook' (to cheat, swindle, charge, exorbitantly) have hovered on the outskirts of standard English, clippings or stumpword like 'mob' and 'cab' characteristic of slang have already found their way into accepted usage. Abbreviations like I'd, I can't, he's, he can't were also used first in slang which ultimately find its way into the standard vocabulary, has been described by G.K. Chesterton as "the one stream of poetry which is constantly flowing". While "it hits the nail on the head" unlike bad slang which misses the mark, good slang is able to impart novelty, vivacity and intimacy to one's speech. Being picturesque, it is able to enliven a dull theme or to administer salutary jolts or shocks to the listeners. Because of its intimacy slang passes imperceptibly into secret or cryptic language and becomes hardly discernible from cant. Each of the English public school has its own slang, which is a form of cant. Similarly gownsmen and townsmen in the university towns of Oxford and Cambridge have their respective kind of slang. Because slang is intimate, it may be confined to a particular geographical community like that of Londoners living within a forty mile radius of the metoropolis or to an occupational class like lawyers, doctors or journalists, each employing its own variety of slang.

USES OR NEED OF SLANG :

Though serious occasions and learned disquisitions call for a dignified and sober style of language such as Gibbon had in mind while speaking in his Autobiography of "the proper tone, the peculiar mode of historical eloquence", a lively speaker requires levels of speech to suit various occasions. An occasional recourse to colloquial and slang phrases can do much to relieve the monotony of a serious discourse, though authors like Swift have denounced the use of slang by learned divines in the course of their sermons. However, if one were to write a text book on any serious subject, one would not want to make it too trivial or chatty by introducing slang of any kind. Just as we try to suit our dress to the occasion, whether gay or solemn, we have to suit our language to the purpose for which it is employed. There is a place for slang not only in speech but also in writing in some contexts, as we see from the writings of Chaucer, Shakespeare and Ben Jonson. Slang may be compared to light music which is quite enjoyable in its proper setting. Poetry, which ranges from the high liturgical solemnity and grandeur of Milton's 'Paradise Lost' to the unconventional verse of 'The Ingoldsby Legends',

is not entirely free from slang.

ANCIENT AND MODERN SLANG :

Slang is worthy of study in any language. It is interesting to note that there is a great similarity between the slang of the ancient world and the slang of today. The comedies of Aristophanes and Menander, and of Plautus and Terence provide very good examples of slang as used by the ancients. Vulgar Latin and Roman army slang have been the sources of the vocabulary of the great Romance languages like French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian and Rumanian. The word for head in French, is 'la tete' which is derived from 'testa', meaning an earthen pot which was Latin slang for the word 'caput' in the Standard Language. This may be compared with the Shakespearean slang 'costard' meaning apple, and 'mazard' meaning bowl, for the same word. Modern slang terms corresponding to this are napper, onion, rocker and block. The word for leg (crus) in Standard Latin was replaced by 'gamba' the slang term meaning hoof, comparable to modern 'stumps' and 'pins'. Salary, meaning salt money was the Roman soldier's slang for his pay. Similarly recalcitrant (one who kicks back) and assali, assault, and insult are all Latin slang terms. From bogus seventeenth century Latin has come 'hox' and Law. Latin has given us 'ignoramus' (from Latin 'we do not know') originally applied to an ill-informed lawyer, and now to any ignorant person.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF SLANG :

Because they are cryptic or secret languages, the different kinds of slang known as cockney rhyming slang, back slang and centre slang can be understood only by those who are in the secret underlying their formation and use. To 'half-inch' is rhyming slang for 'steal' as it rhymes with 'pinch'. Similarly 'stairs' become 'apples and pears', 'boots' are 'dairy-roots' and 'eyes mince pies.' In back slang words are used as they would be when read backwards, with certain changes in the interest of euphony and pronounceability. Thus 'game' becomes 'emag', 'market' becomes 'tekram'. But 'girl' becomes 'elrig', 'old maid' becomes 'delo diam' and 'old woman' 'delo namow'. In what is known as centre or medial slang a vowel and its following consonant in any given word constitute the first two sounds of its slang equivalent, the remainder of the word being formed in a rather capricious way. For example the slang for 'cheek' is 'eekcher' and 'mug' becomes 'ugmer' while fool becomes 'colfoo', and 'proper' becomes 'operpro'. It was during the First and Second World Wars that many varieties of slang emerged from the speech of the underworld, and spreading far and wide among the members of the fighting services, gained a new lease of life.

SHORTENING OF EXISTING WORDS TO MAKE SLANG WORDS :

A notable characteristic of slang is the tendency to shorten existing words by aphesis (omission of the initial unstressed syllables) or by

apocope (suppression of the end sounds). The word 'van' so commonly used has come from carvan by aphesis and vanguard has come from the French word 'avant grade'. Whip is derived from Whipper in and 'fag' from 'fag end' of a cigarette. 'Snap' is from snapshot picture and wag from waghalter, meaning one likely to swing at the end of a rope or to get hanged. The word 'chap' is derived from chapman (merchant) and 'guy' from Guy Fawkes, while 'coon' is derived by aphesis from racoon.

SYNONYMS AS SLANG TERMS :

Among the numerous slang terms which are most widely used are the synonyms for money, nonsense, excellent, depart etc. Money is spondulicks; tin, dough and many other things in slang. Posh, swell, rippin, stunning, smashing, topping, top notch, Al, champion, super, yum-yum, extra-super, are some of the countless terms for 'excellent' popularly used in conversation. The terms for 'nonsense' include balder dash, ballyhoo, bilge, blab, blither, bunkum, claptrap, drivel, hot air, humbug, rubbish, stuff, trash, tripe, and twaddle. "Be off" in slang becomes "beat it, buzz off, clear out, fade away, evaporate, decamp, disappear, go to Both China, Jericho, Timbuctoo etc. shove off, sling your hook, truf off and shog off.

USEFULNESS OF SLANG :

On the whole, slang tends to be native rather than learned or foreign in its elements. It is usually simple and direct instead of being complex, concealed or insinuatory in its character. It brings the peculiar and the particular down to the level of general comprehension. The use of slang implies faintly a moral or intellectual standard in keeping with good sense or at least commonsense. "It dispels hypocrisy and humbug in short, it is catholic, tolerant, human, and though often tartly, humane." "Inherent in human nature as a psychological tendency and potentiality slang is indicative not only of man's earthiness, but of his indomitable spirit. It sets him in his proper place; relates a man to his fellow, to his world and the world, and to the universe"[1]

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1. **Eric Cartridge :** *The Concise Usage and Abusage.*
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Q. 47. How far has English usage been controlled and guided by established authority ?

Ans. It is a fact that the English language has never had its usage controlled and guided by linguistic academy quite like the Italian Academe della Crusca or the Academie Francaise. Linguistic societies in English have been reluctant to take the responsibility for the control of good English usage as few speakers of English sincerely regard such control as either desirable or practicable. Twice in the history of the language attempts have been made to establish a linguistic academy for English on the model of the Italian and French academies. The first attempt which was made by Dryden, failed because scientific interests prevailed over linguistic ones. The second attempt, which was sponsored by Swift failed because of an unfavourable turn in political events.

EFFORTS TO ESTABLISH CORRECT USAGE :

Dryden who endeavoured to write English as near as he could distinguish it from the tongue of pedants and that of affected travellers, had wished earnestly for the establishment of an English linguistic academy. He wrote in the Dedication to the Rival Ladies : "I am sorry that (speaking so noble a language as we do) we have not a more certain measure of it, as they have in France, where they have an Academy erected for that purpose and endowed with large privileges by the present king." The Royal Society which was just two years old at the time, showed an active interest in language and passed a resolution appointing a committee consisting of certain members of the society for improving the use of the English language. The committee consisted of twenty-two persons including John Dryden, John Evelyn, Edmund Waller, and Thomas Sprat, Bishop of Rochester. The formation of this committee was the nearest approach made so far, to the establishment of an English linguistic Academy. But this society for the improvement of English was lacking in drive and energy and its duties were too vague and ill defined to be effectively carried out. After meeting a few times and achieving nothing worth mentioning, it soon died a natural death.

Meanwhile as the Age of Reason was dawning there was much talk of the compilation of a Standard English Dictionary which was meant for "correcting, improving and ascertaining (that is, fixing) the English tongue". But despite the enthusiam shown by Swift for the cause of improving the language, he could not succeed in establishing an English

Academy. The reason for his failure was that, when Queen Anne died in 1714, he and his patron, the Earl of Oxford, with his fellow Tories were thrown out of power. The need of a good Dictionary was soon supplied by Johnson's memorable work in 1755. A few years later two books on English grammar were brought out by Joseph Priestley and Robert Lowth. However, as the century was drawing to a close there were more and more sceptical views on the desirability of "embalming a language." Johnson who had flattered himself with the idea of fixing English language in an enduring correct form, when he began work on his Dictionary, grew wiser as he was approaching the completion of his work. The great lexicographer had the good sense to acknowledge that when he had thought of fixing the language "he had indulged expectation which neither reason nor experience could justify." It was evident that the establishment of anything like a linguistic Academy would mean more loss to the language than gain. Before the close of the century man's linguistic horizon was rapidly widening as Sir William Jones, Bopp, Rask, Grimm and Pott brought out their great books on comparative linguistics and the affinities of the Indo-European languages. The study of these great works helped to popularize the idea that "correctness" in language is a relative term and that it is not to be prescribed by an Academy or committee. On the other hand, it was admitted that correct usage is to be measured by the standard of good use as exemplified in the best writing of the best writers.

WORKS ON GRAMMAR :

The grammar books by Priestly and Lowth were followed by others, the most important of which was Lindsley Murray's English Grammar of 1875. This was followed by Alexander Bain's "Higher English Grammar of 1863" and many others, some of which were descriptive grammars (pointing out what actual English usage was), some prescriptive ones (which prescribed correct usage) and some descriptive ones (stating what people should not say). Most of them followed the traditions of Latin grammar. This, however, was changed when Henry Sweet appeared in the field with "A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical". Sweet was of the view that language is partly rational and partly irrational and arbitrary and his 'Grammar' is a masterpiece of its kind. Apart from Sweet's work no comprehensive Grammars have been produced in England though excellent works were produced in America by Krapp, Kennedy and Crume. The most elaborate work on English grammar has been produced by the three Dutchmen, H. Poutsma, Etsko Kruisinga, and R.W. Zand, Voort, and by the Danish writer Otto Jesperson. The first two were followers of Sweet who emphasised the value of independent observation. So they divested themselves of all nations of traditional Greek grammar and mostly invented their own special terminologies. As their language was closely related to English, they could understand it perfectly and as it was sufficiently different

from English they could approach English from the outside with more objectivity. In his excellent Handbook of English Grammar for Dutch university students Zandvoot has made a comparative study of the sentence-patterns and clause structures of English and Dutch.

WORK OF OTTO JESPERSON :

The great Scandinavian Anglicist, Otto Jesperson, who published the first part of his book "Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles" in 1909, died in 1943 while working on the sixth and seventh parts of the work which were later completed by three of his former pupils in the university of Copenhagen. In the first part of the book, Jesperson deals with sounds and spelling, and in the sixth he deals with morphology while the rest of the book is devoted to the study of syntax. The book is thus primarily a descriptive Grammar of current English with an historical outlook. A more concise version of this is contained in his book "The Essentials of English Grammar" published in 1933. Jesperson has represented English grammar, not as a set of rigid rules and precepts by which some things are right and others are absolutely wrong, but as something growing and developing under continual undulations and fluctuations. He regards English grammar as something founded on the past and preparing the way for the future. It is neither consistent nor perfect, but progressing and capable of perfection like everything else that the human beings wish. With meekness and humility this Scandinavian writer on English grammar refrained from telling his English and American readers what correct English is or should be. He was content with recording and explaining the actual facts of English usage in various periods. It was Jesperson's feeling that a grammar of relativity would be preferable to the grammar of rigidity now taught in schools; as it is more consistent with the idea of progress and change which is inevitable in language. His grammar book will certainly be persued with profit and delight by future writers and speakers of English.

THE OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY :

This seven volume grammar book of Jesperson bears comparison with the greatest achievement of English lexicography in one respect. *The New English Dictionary on Historical Principles,* popularly known as *The Oxford English Dictionary*, like Jesperson's 'Grammar', contains a wealth of illustrative quotations. It is the Standard Dictionary of the British Commonwealth and of the United States of America. It is the most authoritative work of reference for all users of English as it gives the history and signification of all English words which are now in use or had been in use since the middle of the twelfth century. As all the five Middle English dialects—Northern, East Midland, West Midland, Southern and Kentish—were of almost equal importance between 1150—1500 the words from all five are included. After 1500 purely dialectal expressions from British and American English have been left out unless

they have acquired a certain literary currency. Words which have been in use at any time after 1150 are traced back to their earliest recorded forms. Thus the greater part of the Old English vocabulary finds a place in the Dictionary though most of the words are no longer used. The vocabulary which is included in the Dictionary consists of denizens like ade-de-camp, locus, carte-de visite and table-d'hote, aliens like shah, geyser, cicerone, backsheesh, and sepoy, and casuals like podesta and shirro found in books of travel. Technical terms which are used widely outside their proper spheres have been included in the Dictionary while others have been left out. In giving the meanings of words the sense which was the earliest in time, is placed first and the others follow in chronological order. A quotation is given to illustrate each separate sense. There is at least one quotation to represent each century and it is left to speak for itself. Exact references to the books and editions from which the quotations have been made are also given. This is something unparalleled by any other Dictionary in any other language. The first supplement to the Dictionary and a re-issue came out in 1933 under the name The Oxford English Dictionary. Its Trans-Atlantic supplement in four volumes was published by Sir William Craigie and James R. Hulbert in 1944. It is known as The Dictionary of American English on Historical Principles. Specialized journals like the Bulletin of Historical Research, and Transactions of the American Philological Association have been making additions and corrections to the American Dictionary from time to time.

The Oxford Dictionary is now universally accepted as the highest authority on all aspects of the language. It has influenced our whole attitude to language and has been helpful in raising the standards of all the smaller Dictionaries for school and home use. The Shorter Oxford Dictionary, The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English, and the Little Oxford Dictionary have all been based on it. It has been of immense help to the great encyclopaedic dictionaries produced recently, especially in America. The new Webster and Funk and Wagnall's New Standard owe much to The Oxford Dictionary. So also does H. C. Wyld's valuable "Universal Dictionary."

DANIEL JONES'S ENGLISH PRONOUNCING DICTIONARY :

Just as the Oxford Dictionary has now become the highest authority on all aspects of English usage, Daniel Jones's "*An English Pronouncing Dictionary*" containing the pronunciations of all words in International Phonetic Transcription, has become accepted as the best authority in matters of pronunciation. The author has declared that he has no intentions of becoming "either a reformer of pronunciation or a judge". His sole aim is to observe and record accurately and his Dictionary professes to record the sounds of "typical Southern English" as used in ordinary conversation. He records only facts and he is unconcerned with theories

or personal preferences. Daniel Jones's *Pronouncing Dictionary* gives us the record of a form of speech which the greatest number of educated people in the English speaking world have found both pleasing and intelligible. On certain occasions the author is faced with acceptable pronunciations and then he gives both in the order of frequency. Jones's *Pronouncing Dictionary* is also valuable for the gathered information it presents on the names of places and families in England.

ROLE OF PUBLIC BODIES OR SOCIETIES :

In addition to the authoritative books of reference regarding the pronunciation, grammar and usage of English, there are some public bodies which concern themselves with language, though none of these happens to be quite like the Italian and French Academies. The British Academy, the Philological Society, the English Association, and the Committee on spoken English of the British Broadcasting Corporation are all connected in some way or other, with the use of language. The British Academy has no resemblance, except in name to the Academic Franchise. It was founded in 1902 as a learned society of regular and corresponding Fellows, meeting regularly at Burlington House in Piccadilly. It professes to promote "the study of the moral and political sciences, including history, philosophy, law, political economy, archaeology and philology. But though the Academy has had eminent philologists like Dr. Henry Bradley and Professor Sir William Craigie among its Fellows it has not yet made any authoritative pronouncements on matters relating to use of English language. Whatever these philologists have written or spoken on matters relating to the use of English, has been done in their individual capacities and not in the capacity of the Fellows of the British Academy. Thus it is clear that the Academy has done nothing to make its existence known to the English speaking world.

THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY :

The Philological Society organized in 1842 with an initial membership of about 200 persons, has been meeting regularly in London, Oxford, Cambridge or in one of the Northern Universities. The professed object of their meeting has been the investigating of "the structure, affinities and history of language". Very early in its history the society embarked upon two very commendable projects—the compilation of a good English Dictionary and the editing of hitherto unpublished texts in Old and Middle English. The first of these projects was launched in 1857 by Dr. R.C. Trench when he read two papers to the society on the need of a *New English Dictionary*. His suggestions bore fruit two years later when work on the Dictionary was begun, with Herbert Coleridge as first general editor. At his untimely death in 1861 the work was continued by F. J. Furnivall who was the founder of The Early English Text society so that the literature of Old and Middle English should be made available to the

makers of the Dictionary. Though the Philological Society's *New English Dictionary* is now universally recognized as the highest authority on the use of the English language, the society does not lay claim to any authority to exercise supervisory powers over the use of English.

THE ENGLISH ASSOCIATION :

The English Association was established in 1906 as a society of unrestricted membership, which seeks, by means of "lectures, discussions, readings, conferences and publications" to write and introduce to one another those who are interested in English language and literature, whether as writers, teachers, artists, actors or administrators. It also professes to uphold the Standard of English writing and speech. With its head-quarters in London the Association has branches all over the world. It does the good service of enabling the public to hear the great poets and writers. It also encourages young writers to publish their work, besides giving generous help and advice on matters relating to the fostering of good English. The Association however has neither sought nor held any position of authority in matters linguistic or literary.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE OF B.B.C. :

The B.B.C's Advisory Committee on spoken English was constituted for the purpose of helping those whose daily duty is to broadcast the news of the world. Robert Bridges, the poet Laureate, was the chairman of the committee when it began work in 1926. In 1934 the committee was enlarged and Bernard Shaw was elected its president. Excellent handbooks on broadcast English, based upon "information slowly gathered in Broadcasting houses over a period of years" are given to the announcers for guidance : though no special authority is claimed for the pronunciations recommended.

THE SOCIETY FOR ENGLISH :

The Society for English which was founded in 1913 by Robert Bridges had exercised its beneficial influence over English usages for about thirty four years. During this period it had published several highly specialized and informative Tracts. Bridges has believed that the purity of English could be presented, not by any foolish interference with living developments, but by the "agreeing upon a modest and practical scheme for informing popular taste on sound principles, for guiding educational authorities and for introducing into practice certain slight modifications and advantageous change". The original members of the society included such eminent scholars as Sir William Craigie, H. W. Fowler, G. S. Gordon and L.P. Smith. But as these scholars passed away the society died because no more material of the quality envisaged by them was forthcoming.

FOWLER'S BOOK :

Meanwhile the conception of custom and common usage as the final authority upon linguistic correctness has found full, and rather

individualistic, expression in H.W. Fowler's book "*A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*" first published in 1926 and corrected and re-published in 1930 and 1937. It has now become accepted as a standard work of reference which has attained a position of authority which would have been disclaimed by its editor. The influence of Fowler's book is seen in the later handbooks on English Grammar and Usage as well as in the various aspects of current speech. Eric Partridge, Robert Graves, Sir Alan Herbert and Sir Ernest Gowers have all been influenced by the work of Fowler, and each in his turn, has had challenging, provocative and helpful comments to make on the use of English. There is an evergrowing awareness now of the power of words among speakers of English. Twentieth century lexicographers, phoneticians, and grammarians are becoming more and more accepted as the arbiters of good speech inspite of their vehement protests. Though in theory popular usage is admitted as the measure of linguistic correctness, in actual practice, the reputable handbook is accepted as the final authority more than ever before.

Q. 48. Discuss the modern trends and tendencies in the development of the structure of English speech.

Ans. Before beginning to discuss the modern trends and tendencies in the development of the structure of English speech, we have to attempt to indicate the grammatical principles which have in historical times become of fundamental importance in the language. This is all the more necessary because our knowledge of traditional grammar may either cause us to be ignorant of these principles or to be insufficiently appreciative of them even if we perceived them. After these fundamental principles have ben referred to, we have to consider the various other striking developments which are of a less radical nature.

DIVISION OF WORDS :

The strongest pillars which support the grammatical structure of English are the division of the words in the language into two great classes, and the order in which the words are arranged in the sentence. The capacity of English to express meaning and the manner in which it is done, are both dependent on these two girders which uphold the grammatical structure. It is true that the word order and the division of words into full and empty ones had existed in Greek and Latin on which English grammar has been modelled. But they were much less important in the classical languages, and had, therefore, received little attention either from the Latin and Greek grammarians or from the English grammarians following in their steps.

'FULL' AND 'EMPTY' WORDS :

To consider the division of the words first, we see that English words are classified into 'full' and 'empty' ones. The first category includes words which have substantive meaning, namely all nouns, most verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Empty words, which are also called grammatical words, are used for structural purposes such as and, but, there (as in "there is" etc.) it (as in "it rains") do (as in "Do you understand English") are (as in "Are you going out?") etc. Prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, auxiliary verbs and pronouns also come under the category of empty words.

Where distinction between full and empty words is one of meaning, it is also one of degree. Most empty words originally are full words whose substantive meaning had grown faint and died out in the course of time. 'There', for instance, was originally an adverb of place and the preposition

'with', as in 'withstand' and 'withdraw' had indicated notions of movement and action. Many auxiliary verbs like 'do' and 'have' can be used as both full and empty words. Sometimes there are several forms of empty words which can be used with the same full ones. We can speak of going up or going down a horizontal street with precisely the same effect in action. We can also act upon compulsion or under compulsion.

Some empty words are so devoid of substantive meaning that it seems that only convention had determined the choice of the particular empty word to be used in a context. A curious example of this is seen in the expression "had rather". The original expression was "would rather". This when shortened, became indistinguishable from the shortened form of 'had rather' ('she would rather' and 'she had rather', when shortened, become 'she'd rather'.) The shortened form of 'would rather' thus came to be wrongly expanded into 'had rather.' Though this has been corrected, the historically wrong form is still used sometimes.

Because of the nature of empty words it is found that different forms of the same use are coming into existence in different places in the wide empire of the English speaking peoples. When the Englishman says, "That is all there is in it," his American cousin will say, "That is all there is to it". We cannot disapprove of either usage, because, in both cases the empty words which do not have any substantive meaning, have been chosen by local tradition. While Modern English uses "acquaint with", 18th century speakers of English had accepted the usage "acquaint of" just as we now use "inform of".

FUNCTION OF 'EMPTY' WORDS :

The primary difference between full and empty words is one of function and not of meaning. Their having substantive meaning is not what distinguishes full words from empty ones. The distinction is based on the fact that empty words are used for structural purposes and on that account they are also called grammatical words. These words provide the connective tissue which holds together the full words in a sentence. Some of them are used merely to separate full words and have no function except that of preserving an appearance of the normal structure. Examples of such usage are found in "The corporation of Cochin," "Velu Thampi, the patriot." Other empty words like pronouns and the verbs like am, and do may be used in place of full words, as in the sentences "I saw him going", "Are you ready? yes, I am". "Do you speak English? Yes, I do". There are some empty words which provide the necessary connections between full words or phrases or clauses or sentences. They are generally known as conjunctions and relative pronouns. Still other empty words like proposition and auxiliary verbs are made to do the same work that inflexional endings perform in synthetic languages.

Because Modern English, unlike Old English, is non-inflexional in character, there are a good number of empty words in it and they are

very frequently used. Though the empty words in English are proportionately larger in number than those in other languages, they are small in number in comparison with the total of full words. The number as well as the frequency of these empty words is slowly increasing. Of late, we find that the empty words like more and most are slowly displacing the adjectival forms with the endings -er, est.

WORD-ORDER :

Coming to word-order, which is the second important girder which holds up the grammatical structure of English, we find that the normal order of words—subject, verb, object, extensions—has been established in English early, as in other European languages. The gradual disappearance of the Old English inflexions has resulted in the fixing of the order of words in the sentence. It has already acquired binding force and is rigidly followed in English speech and writing. In writing, this rigid word-order is adhered to except when one wants to break the monotony or wishes to establish a smooth connection with what precedes. About ninety percent of the sentences in written English today preserve rigid word-order as against forty percent of the sentences in King Alfred's English. Variations from this established word-order are very slight and are becoming rarer as time passes.

ADVANTAGES OF FIXED WORD-ORDER :

The fixed word-order gives certain advantages to speakers and writers of English. Any deliberate alteration in the conventional word order can be made use of for the purpose of emphasising or altering an idea. The difference in the position of the attributive adjective can be a means of expressing change in the sense or function. For example, "an off day" and a "day off" do not mean the same thing. There is difference in function between the two uses of "dead" in the sentences "He struck a dead man" and "He struck a man dead". Subsidiary devices consisting in the employ of a special type of word order are used when we want to put the verb first, and at the same time, have to convey an idea which requires the normal word-order. For instance, in an affirmatory sentence where the order of the subject and verb is inverted, we make use of an empty word like there, it etc. as in the sentences : "It is a matter of surprise to me that women have put up with masculine domination for so many centuries" and "There is a broad river passing by my house." Another device often resorted to in Modern English consists in the supplying of dummy subjects in sentences like "It was raining heavily this morning" or "It is very hot here in the months of April and May". These features which are not based on any principles derived from inflexional grammar, have now become established as essential and permanent characteristics of English.

The rigid word-order of English requires that associated ideas should be represented by words and phrases which are placed adjacent to each

other. Hence words which seem to be in danger of transfering their allegiance to some other words than the ones to which they are associated according to the meaning are placed adjacent to each other. This accounts for what is known as "the split infinitive" as in "I want you to seriously consider this point." During the last three centuries this usage has been trying to establish itself in Standard English, though pedants have been opposed to it on the ground that the 'to' was originally a preposition and the infinitive was originally its noun. But from the modern trends we can say that the split infinitive has almost succeeded in establishing itself in usage because of its superiority to any other arrangement of the words in the sentences. Though a good deal of fuss is being made about this usage in actual fact it does not cause as much difficulty as is caused by the attachment of pairs of attributes to a single noun as in "He gave me a soiled travellers' cheque" or the employment of words like just, only, nearly etc. in a loose way. A humorous writer can provide much amusement by writing sentences in which the rigid word-order is maintained and words like nearly just and only happen to be used so as to give a ludicrous sense. J. H. Jagger quotes a sentence from the News Chronicle of 1939 which reads 'Yesterday morning I nearly saw the peace time establishment of His Majesty's armed forces reduced by two,' which should have said "nearly reduced."

VARYING FUNCTION OF WORDS :

A grammatical device commonly employed in Modern English and which has had no parallel in the classical language or in Old English, where meaning was indicated by concord and word-inflexions, is that of varying the function of a word according to its position of the sentence. Though English has not quite reached a position like that of Chinese, where every word can be used as noun, verb, adjective or adverb according to the context (its form being invariable) the variable functions of words is very important feature of Modern English. As a result of this, the same word 'sense' can be used as a noun, or a verb or an adjective. The same thing is true of so many other words in the language. War, for instance, is a noun, a verb or an adjective, according to the context in which it is used. In the 'first world war', it is a noun, while it is a verb in 'he is out to war with evil". In 'war material' and 'war minister' it is used as an adjective. This is a grammatical device which could never be used in an inflected language like classical Latin or Old English. In a language like Modern English where inflexional endings have ceased to be significant a word can and does vary its function according to its position in the sentence. Though this power of varying the functions of words was not unknown to Old English, it was really in the Middle English period that it was considerably developed. 'Laugh' which in Old English was confined to the verb function (hliehhan) came to be used as a noun, while nouns like sentence, witness, a gossip etc. took over the verb function. Ornament has been a noun from the 13th century, and a verb

from the 18th. 'Bind' was used as a verb from primitive Germanic times, but it came to be used as a noun from the 19th century. Similarly the noun harbour was used as a verb from the 16th century.

Modern English is continuing to exercise this power to vary the functions of words so that the verb 'buy' is used as a noun in the expression "the biggest buy" and the noun 'steamroller' is used figuratively as a verb in the sentence, 'We need to preserve the beautiful varieties of our language not to steam-roller them into a dull uniformity", quoted from the Davil News. Similarly we find L. Abercrombie, in "The Theory of Poetry", using 'gooseflesh' as verb, in the sentence "I goose flesh one day, but another day I do not, at the same passage." In varying the functions of its words like this, English has given the best proofs of its vitality. Now we can add almost any word to a noun to qualify it, whether we call the qualifying word an adjective or noun attributive or anything else. Thus we get expressions like term certificate, autograph copy, volley ball match, cigarette case, root cause, publicity department, present day writers, lady doctor, society woman, district committee, country manners etc. In each of these a noun is used to serve as an attributive. The absence of formal terminations and this power to vary the functions of words save a great deal of time in our use of the language. Journalists, with their urgent need for short and effective headlines had popularised the use of a group of words to function as a noun. For instance we see such headlines as "wood murder charge court scene," and "Death sentence demanded on daughter killer." Any other language, either classical or modern, would require quite a large number of adjectives fall into disuse. Thus 'surface' is often used in place of 'superficial' and 'eye' comes to supplant, 'ocular'.

VARIATION IN PRONUNCIATION :

This variation in the function of a word is accompanied by a new device for indicating formal difference. A monosyllabic word like 'that' is pronounced (θ æ t) when it is used as a demonstrative pronoun while it becomes reduced to (θ ə t) when it is relative. 'Use' is (j u : s) when functioning as a noun and (ju:z) when functioning as a verb. Similarly grease is (gri :s) when used as a noun and (gri :z) when used as a verb. In words of more than one syllable the accent is moved from one syllable to another, to make a change of function. This naturally causes changes in the pronunciation as between the two pronunciations of 'object', 'increase', 'record' etc. when used as noun and verb. In 'separate' the accent does not change, but the sounds are different for the verb and the adjective-(sepereit) for verb and (seprat) for adjective

DIFFICULTY IN USE OF PRONOUNS :

In an uninflected language like Modern English great difficulty is experienced in the use of personal pronouns. Actually two sets of pronouns are needed—one to refer to the subject of the sentence and

another to the immediately preceding antecedent. Because the same pronoun has to serve for both, much ambiguity may arise as the sentence, "And when they arose in the morning, behold they were all dead corpses". It is obvious here that the pronoun 'they' in the earlier part of the sentence does not refer to the same persons as are indicated by the 'they' in the latter part of the sentence. Very often the modern writer of English is put to the necessity of either explaining his pronoun or repeating the noun. There is another aspect in whch Modern English is different from Victorian English in its use of pronouns. In Victorian English, 'he' was considered equivalent to 'everyone' in marking general statements. So one could very well say 'Everyone should act according to his conscience.' In such a sentence 'he' was supposed to embrace 'she'. But in the Modern Age when woman has acquired equal rights with man one very often hears the expression 'Everyone according to his or her taste'. This being a cumbrous usage many people are led to use 'everyone' as if it were equivalant to 'all'. So one would say "Everyone should act according to their conscience". But this new use of the plural pronoun has not yet been fully accepted in general usage. It is inconsistent with the legitimate and useful usage of plurals like they and their. As such, the new usage will bring a new set of inconveniences, while doing away with the inconvenience arising from not having a commonsex pronoun.

FORM SACRIFICED TO MEANING :

Whenever there is a conflict between meaning and form the tendency of English is to sacrifice the latter. A very conspicuous example of this practical nature of English is seen in the treatment of collective noun in Modern English. In using a collective noun, the mind may either be thinking of the units which make up the group for which the noun is used or of the group as single entity. While languages like German and French use the collective noun as if it were grammatically singular, English allows it to be used either as a singular or as a plural, according to the context. We can say, for instance, "parliament were divided on that question" or that "the parliament has unanimously passed the bill". In the same way we can refer to a specified measure or number as a singular as when we say, "Three miles is a long distance" or speak of "a quiet twenty minutes spent in meditation". The habit of abandoning needless forms has resulted in the Modern English use of the present tense where futurity is indicated otherwise in a sentence. Thus we hear people use such expressions as "I leave for Trivandrum next Monday"

INFLUENCE OF LATIN TRADITION :

The Latin tradition in English grammar had laid down the rule that the verb "to be" should be followed by the nominative case in a sentence like, "It is he". The genius of the language, however, is in favour of the objective case to be used after the verb "to be" as in "It is me", "It was her", etc. As good English must always be the usage of good speakers or writers, whether the Latin rules of grammar agree with it or not, the

usage "it is me" is now generally accepted as correct. Again, inspite of the Latin tradition the nominative case has now become acceptable in place of the accusative in sentences like "who do you speak of ?" A sentence like "My husband likes tennis better than me" is now accepted as correct though it would formerly have been corrected into "My husband likes tennis better than I". All these instances go to prove the enfranchisement of English which now follows its natural genius, regardless of rules of Latin grammar or tradition. Reference must also be made here to the development of the passive continuous tense forms in Modern English. Though English has long had two sets of tense forms in the active voice, one for the simple verb and the other for the continuous, made with the verb 'to be' and the present participle as in write, I am writing, the continuous verb did not have, till recently, a separate passive form like the simple verb. In the case of the continuous verb the same form had to do duty for both active and passive, as in "I am building the house", "The house is building". Even towards the end of the 18th century we find the author of 'Evelina' writing "A room is fitted up" while Modern English would have it as "A room is being fitted up." But by the 19th century the logical impulse of the Englishman produced the passive continuous tenses, corresponding to the active continuous ones.The clumsier forms of the passive continuous where 'be' and being occur in juxtaposition, are now carefully avoided so that we do not say "A room will be being fitted up soon". But we cannot be sure that such a sentence will not be accepted as standard twenty years later, judging by the modern trends and tendencies in the structure of English.

INFLUENCE OF NEWSPAPER :

In the present age the English language is being constantly subjected to all kinds of unprecedented stresses and strains. Besides slang the jargon of science and technology and the crude lingo used of the newspaper headlines are affecting the grammatical structure of the language considerably. The language of science and technology tends to be esoteric, and to some extent, international. The writer on technological subjects, if he is, to make himself understood by his fellow-researchers all over the world, will have to go on explaining the terms he uses, as he goes along. Having little knowledge of the art of verbal presentation, he will expect his professional colleagues to meet him half way. In foreign technical periodicals and journals the 'resume' of an article will be usually printed in English and other important world languages to enable scientist working on the subject to see at a glance what the article contains.

The standard of English used for this international communication is usually so low that even the most painstaking reader has great difficulty in getting at the meaning of a sentence. In linguistic crudity these technological epitomes may well be compared with journalistic headlines, film captions and advertisements. The drafting of newspaper

headlines is a very important thing in the modern world where many people have time only to skim through the headlines of newspapers. As the type for the headlines becomes larger, the number and length of the words used have to be reduced. So there is a preference for short words and those which do not contain broad letters like 'm' and 'w' which take up too much space. In the hands of the newspaper reporters 'treaties' thus become reduced to 'pacts'. So also do all compacts, contracts, agreements, conventions, convenants, stipulations, armistices, pledges and engagements become referred to as mere 'pacts'. Any experienced or proficient person in any field is called an 'ace'. Any kind of abridgement, abbreviation, shortening, curtailment or reduction becomes a 'cut.' A negotiation, transaction, or bargain is referred to as a 'deal'. Similarly any kind of undertaking, piece of work, achievement, enterprise, performance, occupation or task becomes a mere 'job'. As an extreme example of the freedom with which the newspaper headlines are clipping words, lopping sentences and disregarding current syntax, Simeon Potter quotes a headline from the Chicago Tribune of October 1924[1]. It reads "Midway signs Limey Prof.to dope Yank talk". By synecdoche Midway here stands for Chicago. Limey is American slang term for an English sailor who drinks lime juice as an antiscorbutic, Yank is American Indian nickname for new England sailor, Prof. is the short form of Professor and signs is journalese for appoints. So the headline meant "Chicago appoints a British Professor to diagnose (interpret) American speech." It actually referred to the appointment of Professor Sir William Craigie in the Department of English, University of Chicago to direct the compilation of "The Dictionary of American English". It shows the lines on which newspaper English is developing at present.

FUTURE OF ENGLISH :

The future of English which is now the most widespread language in the world, depends on the energy and enterprise of the millions of people who speak it as their mother tongue. The impact of English upon other widely spoken languages of the world is now stronger than ever. This language is evidently bound to play a very important part in the evolution of a supernational government and in the other urgent tasks which now confront mankind as a whole. It has already shown itself capable of shaping and adapting itself unceasingly to meet new requirements. In the task of reshaping and adaptation of the structure of English speech to meet new demands and requirements which may arise in the years to come, every writer and speaker of the language will consciously or unconsciously be playing a part.

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1. Simeon Potter : *Our Language.*
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Q. 49. Give a brief account of the more outstanding features in the development of the syntax of the parts of speech in English.

Ans. In dealing with the important features in the development of the syntax of the English parts of speech, a knowledge of its history is likely to be helpful. Attempting anything like a full treatment of the syntax of the English of today, would mean, among other things, the writing of a descriptive English grammar. Though it is desirable that the student of the living language of today should be able to approach it both diachronically and synchronically, we shall confine ourselves to the diachronic approach. The synchronic approach is left out here, as it is not likely to be so unfamiliar to the ordinary speakers of English as the diachronic one is.

CASES :

Taking the parts of speech one by one, we see that in the noun only two cases have now survived from the four in Old English. The function of the two other cases have to be carried out at present by means of such things as the wider use of prepositions and the employing of a more rigid word-order. In Modern English we have a common case which expresses the functions of both the old Nominative and Accusative cases. The very same form as the one used for the Nominative and Accusative is used for the Dative case also. In expressing the dative sense a preposition is often called in to avoid the ambiguity which may arise in a language like English which has lost most of its inflections. In a sentence like "She gave the boy an apple," Old English would have employed a distinctive dative form for 'boy' and the accusative form for 'apple'. Modern English, on the other hand, uses the same form for all the three cases—nominative, accusative and dative. However, in the sentence :— "He kicked the man in the belly" even Modern English is compelled to resort to a means of indicating the dative case by means of a preposition like 'in'. The one case which has been preserved intact in Modern English usage, is the genitive or possessive case. But even here we find one limitation. Though in the case of personal or animate nouns we indicate the possessive case by the ending 's' the possessive ending is not used for inanimate nouns like table, chair, paper, room, etc. In these instances genitive case would be indicated by the use of the preposition 'of' as in 'the height of table,' 'the size of the chair', 'the cost of the paper', or 'the length of the room.' In Old English the preposition 'of' was used in very much the same way as we use 'from', 'a menn of Cantwarabyrig' meant

'the men from Canterbury'. As the distinctive ending for the genitive became less frequently used, the use of 'of' became more common, especially because it was paralleled by the use of 'de' in the language of Norman rulers. So we now use the preposition as in 'the name of the country', instead of 'the country's name'. In a sentence like 'she gave the girl a present' the fixed word-order indicates the cases of all the nouns used in the absence of inflexional endings which had served the purpose in Old English.

ADJECTIVES :

Coming to the adjectives in Modern English we find that they have lost their case-ending as well as the distinction between singular and plural which is still retained in nouns. At present, the function of an adjective in the sentence is indicated by the word-order—with the aid of the prepositions, at times. We have to remember how much more complicated was the usage in old English where there were not only the singular and plural forms, but also four or even five cases for the adjective, in addition to special forms to show whether it was used attributively or predicatively. Modern English has the same adjective for the attributive adjective (the beautiful flower) and the predicate (the flower is beautiful).

PRONOUNS :

The personal pronouns in English have changed much less than nouns and adjectives in the matter of case function since Anglo-Saxon days. In old English, the pronouns 'me', 'thee' had done duty for both accusative and dative cases, as in Modern English. The same was true of 'hee'. From the 15th century the old dative form 'him' has been doing the duty of accusative also. In the second person plural we find that the accusative form you (from Old English geow) has replaced the nominative 'ye' (from Old English ge). Hence this pronoun has the same form 'you' for all three cases—nominative, accusative and dative. Except in poetry and religious usage this plural pronoun has now come to be used for the old singular 'thou' and 'thee'. It, therefore, serves now the function of the old thou, and 'thee' and ye. Inspite of the adoption of the Scandinavian forms, they, their, and them, the native form 'hem' from the Old English 'heom', has survived as 'em' in colloquial use with the 'h' dropped for want of stress. In the same way the 'h' has been dropped in 'it', derived from Old English 'hit'.

VERBS :

In the syntax of the verb we find that there is a notable change in Modern English. It was customary in Old English to have the verb placed at the very end of a sentence as in "Oh-there Saegde his halaforde Alfrede cyninge paet he ealra Nor θ monna nor θ maest bu*d*e" which may be literally translated in to "Oh θ hear said to his lord King Alfred that he of all Northmen northmost lived." But in Modern English, the verb generally follows the subject and the normal order of words in a sentence

is subject, verb, object. The Old English habit of putting the verb at the end of the sentence seems to have been inherited from Indo-European. But it very often happens that in colloquial speech we add a word or phrase after a sentence has been completed as in "She was present at the interview—the girl you spoke to me about." This tendency was present in late Old English and to it was added the danger of ambiguity in a long sentence where the verb appeared only at the end. These causes must have led to the verb assuming the position which it now has in the sentence. In all probability changes of this 'kind' in word-order must have been brought about on account of emphasis and convenience also.

MOODS :

The most important change in the form of the verb and the one which has brought about many consequential changes, is the virtual loss of the subjective mood in Modern English. It is true that the two functions of the subjunctive mood, namely, the expression of hypothesis and wish indicated by the ending e, and en in Old English, and properly designated as subjunctive and optative have continued in the language. It is only the morphological distinctions indicative of the subjunctive mood which have disappeared practically. During the Old English period the subjunctive was frequently used for reported speech on the authority of the speaker, for many kinds of subordinate clauses, for exhortations and for the expression of wish. But on account of the loss of the weak verbal endings [-e] and [-en] in Middle English the subjunctive ending became indistinguishable from the indicative. It was only natural that it then began to fall out of use except in certain fixed formulae of writing and in stereotyped expressions. This happened all the more easily because no serious ambiguity was found to arise from the coalescing of the subjunctive and indicative in nearly all verbs except in the third person singular. However we find forms like the subjunctive "If I were you" and "If it be possible" surviving in modern English, because, in the verb 'to be' the indicative and subjunctive forms did not fall together so closely as in other verbs. Expressions like "if he do" or "had I been there" however, are used only in more formal or solemn language. On more ordinary occasions people say "if he comes" or "If I had been there."

AUXILIARIES :

The expressions of wish, belief etc. which were conveyed by the originally optative form of a verb in Old English could no longer be possible without the use of some auxiliary verb after the loss of the distinctive subjunctive endings. Thus auxiliary verbs like may, might, should, would are used along with the indicative forms of verbs to convey the idea of wish, belief etc. and to make periphrastic optatives. Where Old English could use optative form of the subjunctive and say 'Ic wilinige popxet he cume' Modern English has "I wish that he may come." The use of the auxiliary is thus meant to remove the ambiguity caused by the

loss of the properly subjunctive verb endings.

RELATIVE PRONOUN :

Turning to the relative pronouns we find that the oldest form of the relative pronoun is in English 'that' (Old English pert). It had always been an indeclinable particle without any sign of case and was in common use till the Renascence. At the Renascence the newer relative pronoun 'who' came to be used for the function of 'that' in the written language particularly because of its similarity to the Latin usage where the relative and interrogative pronouns almost correspond to each other. The form who (Old English hwa) was the regular interrogative in earlier times. But the absence of case distinctions in the properly relative 'that' made Chaucer and other writers to use 'whom' and 'whose' instead of 'that' occasionally to avoid ambiguity. Later 'who' also thus came to be substituted for 'that' so that from the 16th century onwards 'who' performed the functions of both interrogative and relative.

USE OF INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVE AS RELATIVE :

Along with the development of the interrogative pronoun 'who' into a relative we also find the originally interrogative adjective 'which' being used as a parallel relative. Thus by the 16th century 'who' and 'which' are both used as alternative relative pronouns in literature, while the old relative 'that' is used colloquially. While the Anglican Version of the Lord's prayer begins with "Our Father which art in heaven" the Roman Catholic rendering has "Our Father who art in heaven". Though the respect for Latin tradition kept the old relative 'that' confined to colloquial usage in 16th century, in the 17th century writers like Dryden helped to elevate the colloquial usage into literature. Though writers like Steele condemned the use of 'that' in place of 'who' and 'which' as a return to barbarism, both who and which on the one side and 'that' on the other have become almost generally interchangeable since the 18th century. But a fairly clear distinction has sprung up since the time of Dryden between who and which, the first being used in relation to persons and the second in relation to animals or inanimate things. 'That however can be used in both instances. The relative 'that' having no case forms other than the nominative, we cannot give it a genitive or dative corresponding to whose or whom or the equivalent propositional, 'of which' and 'to which'. We cannot say "the man of that I was speaking" or "the book to that I was referring " just as we would say " the man of whom I was speaking" or "the Book to which I was referring". We make a genitive and dative for 'that' by placing the 'of' or 'to' after the pronoun and having some intervening word or words. Thus we say "the girl that I was pointing to" or "the book that I was referring to".

OMISSION OF RELATIVE PRONOUN :

Since the old English period there has been a growing tendency which had originated in the North to omit the relative pronoun where it would

be implied by the context. This had led to such usages as "the man I told you of" instead of "the man that (whom) I told you of". Another colloquial usage which has now become accepted in literary usage is the substitution of the nominative 'who' for the objective 'whom' and that of the objective 'me', 'her' and 'him' in place of the corresponding nominative forms. Strict English grammar, based on Latin tradition, approves of sentences like "whom do you mean"?, "It is I", "It was she" and "that is he", while Modern English usage has already accepted as correct the sentences "who do you mean"?, "It is me," "It was her", "that was him".

PRESENT PARTICIPLE :

The present participle in "ing" now remains to be dealt with, while considering the developments in syntax of the different parts of speech in Modern English. The Old English ending for the present participle was ended. This developed in Middle English into -inde as well, and there was also a Norse -ande in strongly Scandinavianized areas. But an Old English form of the verbal noun ending in -ing was in existence from the days of King Alfred. Thus 'biting', the act of biting, was the verbal noun, formed from the verb "bitan", meaning 'bite'. This verbal noun, in the particular form derived from the inflected type ending into Middle English. In Middle English the historical participle ending in -inde was commonly used as 'inge' in the South West and so the ending for the verbal noun, which was also -inge (from Old English -inga) came to be identical with the participle ending. Thus in Middle English the same form biting was used for participle and verbal noun. This accounted for the common ending -ing which is found in Modern English verbal nouns and present participles, as in "I am seeing him for the first time" and "seeing is believing".

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Q. 50. Give an account of the important principles underlying changes of meanings in English words, with suitable illustrations.

Ans. In studying the history of any language we have to consider not only the development of its grammatical structure and the additions of new words to its vocabulary, but also the changes which have taken place in the meanings of many words in the language. A modern dictionary like the *Oxford English Dictionary*, in attempting to trace that history of every English word from its earliest appearance, has fully recognized this principle of changes of meaning in words. A careful study of the changes in meaning which English words have undergone and are still undergoing, will enable us to understand that there are certain general principles underlying the development of new meanings in words and the disappearance of meanings that were formerly current.

CAUSES FOR CHANGE OF MEANING :

One of the most important causes for changes of meanings in words is that when we want to express some notion for which no exact word exists in the language, we naturally use the word that signifies whatever other idea seems to us to be most like that which we have in mind. This tendency has been responsible for a great many of the new meanings acquired by words. Now the nature of the resemblance perceived or imagined may be different in different cases. When we have to provide a name for a material thing the resemblance that strikes us, may relate to the form or appearance of the thing, as when we refer to the eye of a needle. The resemblance may also be based on some physical quality, as when the hard kernel of certain fruits is called a stone. The resemblance in relative position makes us to speak of the head and foot of a page while the resemblance in function makes the index of a clock-dial to be called a hand. It may so happen that at times two or more of these resemblances may be combined in the new meaning of a word. An example of this is seen in the ear of a pitcher which resembles the human ear both in form and function. Thousands of English nouns have thus come to acquire new senses. Till the sixteenth century the word chest in English meant merely a box. It has later become the name for the box like part of the body which contains the vital organs like the heart and the lungs. Though a needle primarily meant tool for sewing, the word is now applied to many things which resemble it in shape. Thus we have the surgeon's needle and the needle of a compass. The key of a clock is so called, not because of resemblance in shape or purpose to the key with which we lock a door but because we turn it round as we turn a key

in a lock. Most of the words denoting the different parts of the body have acquired new meanings by being applied to things which have been thought to resemble them in one way or other.

Apart from the above instances where the name of one material thing has been transferred to another which has been believed to resemble it, there are other instances of immaterial objects having some kind of likeness, not always easily definable, to some other material or immaterial object. In such cases also the name of the one is used to denote the other. Qualities, conditions, and actions may cause us to perceive similarities, either in themselves or in their results or in the feeling with which we regard them. Thus the nouns, adjectives, or verbs describing them acquire new meaning so that we refer to the book of nature, and the key to mystery or describe a person's manners as either rough or smooth. We also say that time flies and trade flourishes. In these instances of metaphorical expressions there are resemblances which are more easily perceived than explained. However, such metaphorical expressions have a large part to play in the development of new meanings for words.

It is now universally admitted that most words now used in the language to describe mental states or qualities have acquired their meaning through metaphorical use, the earlier senses being known to have been purely physical. Though this is a process common to all languages, the contrary process is also observable in English. In O.E. the adjective 'keen' could be used only of persons. It had the sense of German kuhn namely 'darling' or 'bold' as well as 'wise' or 'clever'. By the 13th century the adjective applied to the warrior became used for his sword and thus the physical sense of sharp or cutting soon became prominent as the meaning of 'keen'. With this the original meaning went out of use. The desire to use a more picturesque language or have greater liveliness and freshness of expression accounts for the tendency to use words in new senses. This tendency lies behind the growth of what is popularly known as 'slang'. It often happens that in the history of language a more respectable word is superseded by slang terms which are more "jocular perversions of the use of other words". In O. E. the word 'smite' meant "to smear or rub over". But in the Bible of 1611 it has the sense of "to strike" because of the jocular perversion of the original meaning. We can compare it with the use of 'anoint' in Elizabethan English, to mean "cudgel".

GENERALIZATION OF MEANING :

We often find that when the resemblances which have caused a word to acquire various new senses are all of the same kind, or have something in common, the meaning of the word undergoes a generalization. An example of this is seen in the different meanings acquired by the word pipe. It originally meant a simple musical instrument. Afterwards it became applied to other objects resembling it in shape. At present it has acquired the general sense of "a hollow cylindrical body". Similarly progressive generalization of meaning is seen in the word 'box'. It

originally meant a small receptacle made of boxwood, furnished with a lid, and meant to hold drugs, jewels or money. The meaning of the word gradually became generalised so that by 1700 a large chest for holding clothes could be called a box.

Generalization of meaning takes place not only in nouns but also in verbs. The verb 'bend' is derived from the older Germanic word which was applied to stringing of a bow or the straining of it by pulling the string before the arrow is discharged. As this process results in giving curvature to the wood, bending of a bow was taken to mean curving it by force. Gradually the word was generalized in meaning so as to mean "forcing a thing into an arched shape or bending a thing by effort out of a straight form".

SPECIALIZATION OF MEANING :

Along with generalization of meaning the opposite process of specialization or restriction of meaning is also seen to be taking place in the case of many words in language. It often happens that in the history of language a word which originally had a wide meaning comes to be used later in a narrower or specialized meaning. In Shakespeare's 'King Lear' we come across a reference to rats and mice and "such small deer" where the word deer is used in the general sense of wild animal which was current till the end of 13th century. But from the 14th century the word was applied to the wild animal which was most often hunted, when the Latin 'animal' and the French 'beast' came to be used in the general sense. Two other instances of specialization of meaning are provided by the Old English noun 'stench' and the Old English verb 'stink', both of which could be used in reference to pleasant as well as unpleasant smells. Later the words became restricted in meaning so as to describe only unpleasant smells. Meat is another word which has now lost its earlier meaning of food in general, and has to come to be restricted to flesh-food. The earlier sense is still preserved in the expression. 'Grace before meat' in the word sweet-meats.

MULTIPLICATION OF MEANINGS :

A third kind of semantic change is known as polysemia or multiplication of meanings. On turning the pages of a dictionary we cannot help noticing that innumerable words in the language have developed several meanings in addition to their original meanings. From the central meaning which still remains in use many other meanings have radiated and hence this semantic change is also known as radiation. One would be surprised at the large number of specific meanings given to some of the commonest English words in a dictionary. A glass or a book or a board can have several meanings all radiating from a primary meaning. The word drive was originally used in the sense of driving a flock of sheep. From this developed the notion of driving a coach or a railway engine. Even the man in charge of a stationary engine is said to be driving it. We also speak now of persons with plenty of drive.

SPECIAL MEANING THROUGH ASSOCIATION :

We find that often a word obtains some special meaning through the accidental prominence of some association in which it is used. In earlier English the verb 'harbour' simply meant "to receive as guest, to entertain, or give shelter to". But because of the repeated occurrence of the word in royal proclamations denouncing those who harboured criminals, the word came to mean the sheltering of persons or things that should not be sheltered. Because of the development of this new sense we speak metaphorically now of harbouring evil thoughts. But it is incorrect to speak of harbouring good thoughts. Metaphorical usage has provided all the words denoting the different parts of the body with new meanings, in addition to the primary ones. We now speak of the head of the page, the foot of the bed, the hands of the clock, the ear of a pitcher, the leg of the table, the eye of a needle, the heart of the forest etc.

DEGENERATION OF MEANING :

Another semantic change consisting in degeneration of meaning or catachresis is observed in large number of English words. The adjectives crafty and cunning were both attributes of praise in earlier English while at present they have a derogatory sense. Similary we find that words lewed (lewd), wantowne, (wonton), harlot, and vileyenye (villainy) as used by Chaucer have none of the bad or indecent implications conveyed by these words in Modern English. A lewd fellow was merely an ignorant member of the laity as opposed to the educated clergyman. A wanton person meant a gay one, and a harlot was only a base fellow or vagabond. Vileyenye only meant anything unworthy of a gentleman or something characteristic of a villain or slave serving in a villa. The word fiend is another one which has undergone degeneration of meaning. It is from Old English 'feond' which merely meant foe. After the adoption of the word enemy from French the older word underwent degeneration in meaning and came to signify the unseen enemy of mankind. Propaganda is another word which illustrates catachresis. Originally it referred to a congregation of the catholic church for the propagation of the faith (Congregation de propaganda fide). Because of the degeneration in meaning undergone by the word we no longer use it in relation to any trustworthy news. Silly, (originally meaning happy or blessed) and egregious (out of a flock) were both epithets of praise in earlier English though they have undergone degeneration of meaning in Modern English. Notorious, which now means infamous, originally meant well-known and could be used both in good and bad senses. Churlboor, pagan and heathen are other examples of words which have acquired derogatory meanings.

ELEVATION OF MEANING :

If some words have undergone degeneration of meaning others are seen to have become elevated in sense. Fond, originally meaning foolish, is now having the sense of affectionate, while knight which in Old English

merely meant a lad or servant has been progressively undergoing elevation of meaning till it has come to indicate a nobleman with the title 'Sir'. The noun progress was originally applied to a journey and often used to denote a state journey by a royal personage or ecclesiastical dignitary. It began to acquire the sense of continuous improvement only in the Elizabethan age. Another word which has become elevated in meaning during the same period is "improve" which originally meant "to cultivate waste land". The general meaning "to make better" was gradually evolved because cultivation naturally improved the waste land.

POLARISATION OR COLOURING :

Polarisation or colouring is a semantic change by which words in the course of time acquire an emotional significance which is in no way connected with their etymology. The word Gothic which originally meant "relating to the Goths" acquired the derogatory sense of uncouth, barbarous or wanting in taste, during the latter half of the 18th century, but it has since been restored to its original sense. The adjective Victorian, though originally colourless, has now come to imply some degree of contempt. Bolshevik is another word which is still strongly coloured though it does not now arouse the same horror as it aroused quarter of a century ago. Some words in the language have acquired an emotional colouring in course of time, there are others which have lost their distinctive colouring. The word Quakers, once a term of contempt, is now accepted as the alternative name for The Society of Friends. Policy, politics, politician were all used by Shakespeare and his contemporaries in a derogatory sense, which has since been lost.

EUPHEMISM :

Euphemism or the figure of the speech by which unpleasant or repugnant things are referred to by a less offensive term has given rise to changes of meaning in many English words. Thus passing and decease have become synonymous with death. The word cemetery though originally signifying a sleeping-place is now euphemistically applied to the grave-yard. Euphemism is also employed in the present meanings of accident, casualty, fatal etc. Accident literally means only a happening and casualty, is "one whom something has befallen", while fatal implies something attributable to Fate. The word 'insane' for expressing the idea of madness is also a euphemistic device as it literally means "unhealthy". A number of euphemistic expressions are traceable to a false sense of delicacy or prudery. An element of snobbery is implied in referring to a boarder as a paying-guest and calling a money-lender a financier.

REVERSAL OF MEANING :

The history of certain words in the language shows us how it is possible for a word to undergo an entire reversal of meaning in course of time. The word grocer originally meant a whole-sale dealer who dealt "engros" (in bulk). Now 'grocer' refers to the smaller tradesman who has bought 'en gros' though he sells to customers over the counter in small quantities.

Restive, originally applied to a troublesome horse which refused to move from where it stood has now come to mean impatient or fretful. Wiseacre, originally meaning wise sayer is another word which has undergone reversal of meaning through ironic usage.

POPULAR MISUNDERSTANDING :

In a good number of words in the language, change of meaning have been brought about by popular misunderstanding. Help-mate is an interesting example of this. In the Bible translation of 1611, Eve was described as "an help meet (suitable) for Adam." The presence of the article before help made people to suppose that what followed the article was a compound noun help-meet conveying the idea of what Eve was to Adam. Thus helpmeet was considered to be the right term for one's partner in life and some people even went to the extent of pointing out how it was applied to the person who helps to make both ends meet. Later the word was 'corrected' into helpmate because the second element of the word was believed to have been corrupted into 'ment' in helpmeet. Another word which owes its present meaning to popular misunderstanding is 'preposterous' which literally implied a putting of the cart before the horse. Thus it has come to acquire the sense of "intolerably absurd." The word 'premises' meaning the things mentioned before, is often used in the title deed of a property. After the detailed description of the property is given at the beginning this word is used to refer to it, whenever necessary, in the course of the document. So 'premises' was taken to mean a house or building such as is often mentioned in the title deeds. Emergency ("literally, something which comes to the surface") has acquired its present meaning because of some confusion with urgency and because of the awkward situation created by something emerging suddenly and unexpectedly.

USE OF NAMES AS REGULAR PARTS OF SPEECH :

Names of persons and places have also in course of time come to acquire new meanings by being used as regular parts of speech. Dunce from the name of Duns Scotus, a dry-as-dust theorist devoid of true scholarship, guy from the name of Guy Fawkes of the Gunpowder plot, bedlam from the name of Bethlehem hospital, hooligan from the name of an Irish family notorious for rowdiness and riotous behaviour, are examples of this.

SEVERAL CHANGES OF MEANING :

It is seen that many words in English have undergone more than one kind of change of meaning in the course of their history. Words like romance, fairy, bureau, miniature and gossip may be pointed out as examples of words which have had a complicated development. Romance originally was an adjective derived from Rome and is still used in that sense in the expression 'Romance Languages'. In the Middle Ages a new type of literature arose in Romance languages. As love and adventure were the main elements in these romanees, the word romance came to

denote a love-story. From a fictitious love-story the term was later extended to describe a real one and then to denote an absorbing interest in things more impersonal and mundane. Thus we can now speak of the romance of engineering or the romance of the aeroplane. Here there is a suggestion of the absorbing interest in the subject in question, such as lovers usually have for each other. But in addition to these later senses acquired by the word it still retains the earlier one of a fictitious story. From this we have the verb "to romance" meaning "to tell a tale which is untrue". The word 'bureau' (from the French 'bure') originally meant a cloth. Then it was used for a table covered by such a cloth and later for an office in which the table was placed. Next it came to signify the people who occupies the office. Finally it has come to mean a department or agency for the transaction of public business as in travel-bureau, labour-bureau etc. A 'miniature' owes its name to the red lead (minimum) in which the earliest examples were executed on vellum or ivory. Eventually the material became less important than the dimensions and hence the word came to mean "a small-sized portrait, executed delicately and in great detail". Then acquiring an adjectival force it came to be applied to any small-scale model or imitation.

IRONICAL USE OF WORDS :

In tracing the history of the semantic changes which a word has undergone we should be very careful not to be misled by false etymology. Some words in the language have been so commonly employed in ironical usage that they have undergone total reversal of meaning. 'Egregious', derived from Latin and meaning "chosen out of the rest of the group', was originally an epithet of praise. But because it has been used ironically so often, nobody would now feel happy about being referred to as "that egregious person". In "silly" we have another instance of a word which has been so frequently used in the ironical sense that its original complimentary sense has been completely forgotten. The word is derived from Old English "saelig" meaning blessed, innocent, happy etc. and was originally used very often in referring to children. In the Middle English period it was often used in a satirical sense in a tone of mock admiration or envy. In Modern English this satirical sense alone has been retained, the original sense having been lost completely.

DISADVANTAGE OF DEVELOPMENT OF NEW MEANING :

The development of new meanings in words has not been an unmixed blessing in all cases. Though it has enriched the language in so many ways, it has also increased the number of homophones in which the same group of sounds represents radically different notions. Except to the lover of puns such words are a source of annoyance. In the written form of the language, however, the unphonetic spelling of English helps us to avoid the ambiguities caused by homophones in the spoken language. Words which are historically different, though identical in pronunciation are distinguished from each other by different spelling.

In a few cases the written language has the advantage of an arbitrary difference in spelling between what were originally different senses of the same word. 'Read' and 'rede' thus represent divergent uses of one and the same original word. The Old fashioned spelling rede has been retained to denote the old-fashioned sense while the more modern sense is indicated by the modern spelling in 'red'. Similarly the word travail or travel originally meant 'to labour.' One of the specialized meanings of the word was "to make a toilsome journey". This special sense later became generalised again so as to mean simply 'to journey'. But old books like the Bible preserve for us the memory of the original sense which still occurs as an archaism. As in the case of rede, the older sense is now indicated by the old-fashioned spelling travail and the more modern sense is denoted by the spelling travel.

It would be surprising to most people to learn that the word flour does not find a place in Dr. Johnson's *Dictionary* of 1755. One of the meanings he has given to the word flower is "the edible part of corn, meal". This meaning has been derived from the figurative use of flower for the finest part of anything. The original spelling of the word flour and this spelling was used till 1700 to indicate all senses of the word, though the spelling 'flower' introduced in the fifteenth century had come to be the prevailing one in Johnson's time. However, some writers had already begun to indicate the different meanings by the different spellings early in the eighteenth century. The generally current spelling, 'flower' was retained for the more general sense which was most common in literature. The less common spelling flour was used to denote the edible part of corn. Thus we now have two unquestionably different words, flower and flour, which are different in spelling and meaning. In careful speech educated people make a slight difference between the two words in pronunciation as well.

CONCLUSION :

From what has been said above it is clear that the gradual change of signification in words is a universal feature of human language. Words go on acquiring new sense because even the richest vocabulary will be found inadequate to express all possible varieties of distinctions in thought. The ever-increasing necessities of expression can be met only by using words in temporary deviations from their ordinary senses. When a new application of a word is seen to supply a generally felt want, it becomes a permanent part of the language and may, in course of time, give rise to newer senses, even more remote from the original one. As has been referred to already this process may be carried to such an extent as to result in an entire reversal of the original meaning of the word. It is a result of such progressive changes that many words in the language now possess senses which are often dissimilar and sometimes even contradictory.

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WORD-MAKING IN ENGLISH

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Q. 51. Write an essay on word-making in English.

Ans. In addition to borrowing words from various foreign languages, the English language has all along been adding to its word store by the making of new words out of its own resources. Three different methods have been followed in the making of these new words. They are composition, derivation and root-creation. Composition, as the very name implies, means the joining together of two words already existing in the language to form a new one. By derivation is meant making of new words out of existing ones by the addition of either pre-fixes or suffixes or by two other processes known as back-formation and shortening. Root-creation is the third method of forming new words and it implies the creation of an entirely new word, either imitative of some noise or movement or because of "some instinctive feeling of expressiveness."

(a) COMPOSITION (OR MAKING OF COMPOUNDS) :

Composition is the process by which we express in a compound word the idea that can be expanded into a phrase or clause. Most languages have such compound words and follow their own principles regarding their formation. English word-compounding is mostly based on principles which were followed in primitive Indo-Germanic language. The semantic relations existing between the different elements of a compound word can vary from one class of compound to another. and hence these different types have to be studied separately.

THREE KINDS OF COMPOUNDS :

(1) In the majority of English compound words the second element expresses a general meaning which is rendered less general by the first element prefixed to it. Thus steam-boat, implies a boat but only a particular kind of boat driven by steam power. There are many such compounds in the language where the first element limits or modifies the general meaning implied by the second element for instance we see that a bullock-cart is a cart drawn by bullocks, a tree-frog is a frog that lives in a tree and a water-jug is a jug for holding water. Usually it happens that we are guided to a correct understanding of the meaning of the compound word because of our familarity with the things denoted by the two elements which make up the word. However there may be occasional difficulties as when we have to deal with a word like a tree-fern or a fern that is a tree and not anything else. A house-boat could very well mean a boat belonging to a house or one kept in a boat house,

or one supplying the need of a house. But custom has decreed that the word should imply a boat used as a house. The general meaning of a compound word belonging to this class is brought out by the following formula devised by Henry Bradley :— "The noun which is formed of the two nouns A and B means a B which has some sort of relation to an A or to A's in general."

(2) In addition to compounds formed by prefixing one noun to another there are many other classes of compounds in English. For instance there are compounds of adjective and noun like hotbed, wetnurse etc. and those formed by adverb and noun like downfall, upstream etc. The combination of noun and adjective results in compounds like purse-proud, penny-wise etc. while that of an adjective or adverb with an adjective gives us compounds like ever-green and dark-blue. Again a noun or adjective might be combined with a verb to form compounds like white-wash, wired-raw etc. A combination of adverb and verb results in compounds like overtake, upturn, inlay and out-do. In compounds like these the literal meaning is that of the last element, limited or specialised to some extent.

(3) We have a third class of compounds which are derivatives formed from the combinations of two words. Bare-foot, blue-eyed, lion-hearted, quick-witted are all examples of such compounds. Ever since the beginning of the fifteenth century many compound nouns and adjectives have been formed in imitation of French. In these, the first element is a verb-stem and the second a noun denoting the object of the action. Examples of such compounds are kill-joy, scare-crow, toss-post, turn-key, make-shift, break-neck, break-fast. Nouns and adjectives may also be compounded with a verb stem and an adverb as in break-up, come-down, run-away etc. In addition to these compounds we have in English, some improper or spurious ones, formed out of what had originally been words in regular syntactical relation. Father-in-law, man of war are examples of such word-combinations which have now come to be treated as single words.

COMPOUND WORDS IN MIDDLE ENGLISH :

Though Old English was rich in compound words and a large number of compounds have been formed in every succeeding stage of the language, the percentage of compound words in Modern English is lower than that in Modern German. There are several reasons for this. The first reason is that compound words are generally considered inconvenient or awkward in actual use and are, therefore, discarded as soon as single words can be formed to replace them. During the Middle English period words were freely borrowed from French and Latin to replace English compound words. The names of many arts and sciences in Old English had taken the form of compound words which are replaced by French or Latin substitutes. Thus leece cræft was replaced by medicine, Scop-

cr œ ft by poetry, tungol-cr ə ft by astronomy, and rin-cr ə ft by arithmatic. Though a 14th century writer tried to name his book 'ayenbite of in-wyt' instead of "Remorse of Conscience" his practice of replacing the Latin-French synonyms by English compounds was not followed by others.

COMPOUND WORDS IN OLD ENGLISH :

There are many compound words which have been formed in Old English and have been used ever since though they are no longer felt to be compound words. A distinct consciousness of their etymological meaning is no longer retained because phonetic changes have mutilated the two elements forming the compound in each case. For instance Old English go:d spel was a compound word meaning good tidings. Through misreading of the first element it first became god-spel and later gospel, with the Biblical meaning of the good news of Christ's coming. The present form of the word shows that a distinct consciousness of the etymological meaning of the word has long been lost. The history of the Old English word hu:s bond a (husband), is similar. Hu:s in Old English meant house and-bonda meant dweller. So the literal meaning of the word was house-dweller. If this had been kept in mind the modern form of the word would have been house-band instead of husband. The present form of the word has arisen after people had forgotten the etymological meaning of the compound word used to express the idea conveyed by this word. The poetical name for the daisy was day's eye and if this etymology were kept in mind the word would not have its present form. We have in English several place names which started with being compound-words. But the elements of the compound in each case were altered beyond recognition by phonetic change which took place because the etymological meaning of the compound was lost sight of. Thus Stan-tun became Stanton while Old English Stan elsewhere has become stone and t*u*n has become town in Modern English. According to this Stanton should have been Stone town. Similarly St*a*n ford should have become Stoneford.

COMPOUND WORDS IN MODERN ENGLISH :

We find that Modern English is rather peculiar in its usages regarding the formation of compound words. Though it is possible to form compounds of various kinds, those which stay in general usage are the ones which belong to a pattern exemplified in a large number of words. One such type is called "parasynthetic" formation, as in blue eyed, long haired etc. While German has compound verbs like aufgeben (give up) English treats them only as virtual compounds in which the position of the adverb is always after the verb, (break out, sit up, put through). Besides these virtual compounds English has many verbs formed with prefixed adverbs as in overtake, upset, understand. But because these compounds were formed during an older stage of the language, the

principle of composition represented by them cannot be correctly determined. Hence we do not continue to form such compounds except for a few instances where over (in the sense of too much) and under (in the sense of "too little") are prefixed to verbs (over-emphasize under-value etc.). There are a few compound words in English like downfall, down trodden, out break, in-come, up rising, on-looker, out fit, forth coming etc. which are the relics of a time; when in a verbal phrase the adverb could precede the verb. This being no longer the case, we cannot form new compounds of this class like down-toners, to express the idea of "those nouns followed by adverbs still serve as models for new compounds. Thus on the model of Chaucer's holder-up and Shakespeare's finder out we have modern compounds like hanger-on, fitter-up, cutter-out etc.

COMPOUNDS FORMED BY POETS :

Apart from the word compositions characteristic of prose we have some very beautiful compounds in the language of the greatest of English poets. Shakespeare has invented bold compounds in proudpied April, heaven-kissing hill, word-without-end hour etc. while Spenser is the author of self-consuming care, silver-dropping tears and rosy-fingered Morn. Shelley, Keats, Tennyson and Browning have also been the inventors of beautiful and audacious compounds which have considerably enriched the English vocabulary.

(b) DERIVATION :

Derivation is a means of word-making no less important than composition. It is seen to be less freqently resorted to in Old English than the Modern English. The reason for this is that most of the derivatives we come across in Old English had been formed before the Anglo-Saxon tribes had settled in England and the processes by which they were formed having become obsolete, new derivatives of the kind could not be formed in Old English. Thus it was impossible during the English period to form a new noun like parkter from the verb park on the analogy of laughter from laugh.

USE OF SUFFIX :

A large number of derivative verbs were formed in primitive Old English by adding the suffix jan (pronounced -an) to the stem of a noun, adjective or verb so as to form a new verb-stem. To this the endings of mood, tense and person were added and thus a new verb was formed. Thus from nouns like talu, sau, tun and blod the verbs taljan, runjan and bl*o*djan were formed. As the (j) in the syllable of each changed the vowel of the preceding syllable, the derivative verbs were changed into tallan (to tell), sellan (to sell), tyran (to enclose) and bl*ae*dan (to bleed) respectively. By the same process the verb bl*ae* can (to bleach) was formed from the adjective bl*e*c (white or pale) and the causative verb to fell, was formed from the verb feallen, (to fall). But this means of

derivation had already become extinct before Old English came to be a written language. Other modes of derivation actually used in Old English have continued in use to the present day. One of them is the forming of the verb by adding the conjugational endings to the stem of a noun. From a noun like vilcuma (a welcome guest) we could form the verb willcumian (to welcome). In later English, however, the dropping away of the final syllables had made the noun and the verb look alike. It has led to the impression that the noun is used as a verb also. From this modern speakers have been encouraged to make new verbs not only from nouns but also from other parts of speech as well as from whole phrases as in the colloquial expression. "He went on my-dear-following me all the time". It is interesting to note that in Modern English a good number of verbs are used as nouns as when we speak of "a wash, a smoke etc."

OLD ENGLISH SUFFIXES :

Many new words have been derived by adding to existing words suffixes inherited from Old English. Small-ness, clever-ly, woman-ish, sleep-er, drows-y, workman-ship may serve as examples of this. Similarly the Old English prefix -un can be prefixed to any number of descriptive adjectives to make new derivates on the model of unorthodox, ungentlemanly etc. The same prefix can be used with a verb to indicate the reversal of the action as in uncover, unfasten etc. Similarly the Old English prefix be -can be used to make new verbs on the model of be-fog, be-muddle etc.

The Old English suffix -isc (modern-ish) has been put to some new uses in Modern English. It can now be attached to any adjective to express a small degree of the quality indicated by the adjective. Thus bluish means a colour approaching blue, goodish means somewhat good. The adverbial ending -ly (from Old English -lice) has also been used since the 16th century with the numerals to indicate position in a numbered series as in firstly, secondly, etc.

FOREIGN SUFFIXES :

When Latin and French primitive words as well as their derivatives came to be borrowed by the English, the practice of making new English words with foreign suffixes was begun. On the model of derivation, estimation etc. the suffix -ation was used to make new nouns of action out of existing verbs in the botheration, starvation etc. Another foreign suffix -ative, has been used in forming talkative from talk. The Greek endings, -ize, -ist, -ism, -ite have been freely used to make new English words. The suffix, -ling, found in the Old Norse loan word gosling has been used in Modern English to make diminutive nouns as in princeling, kingling, squireling etc. After the 14th century the Dutch suffix, -kim, has also come to be similarly used to make diminutives. Another suffix used to make diminutives is -let, as in streamlet.

FOREIGN PRE-FIXES :

The most useful foreign prefix in Modern English is the Latin re-, in the sense of 'again'. There are innumerable compound of re- with verbs and nouns of action in English now. The Latin prefix dis- is next only to re- in frequency of use. The French en-, em-, are other prefixes from which English derivatives like endear, embody, enliven, embog are formed. Greek anti-, and Latin pro-, are other prefixes from which many derivatives have been formed in recent times. Anti-radical, pro-Russian are examples of these. Pre-, ante-, inter-, non- are other foreign prefixes used in English derivatives.

BACK-FORMATION AND SHORTENING :

Two other processes, namely back-formation and shortening, are also used in making new words from existing ones. Some words in the language have a fallacious appearance of having been derived from certain other words by the addition of well known derivative suffixes. By depriving the supposed primary words of what looks like the suffixes a new word is created. The process of creating a new word like this is known as back-formation. The verb peddle is a typical example of a back-formation derived from the noun 'pedlar' which has the appearance of an agent-noun with the usual suffix. By depriving the noun of this supposed suffix the new verb 'peddle' is created. In the same way the verb 'grovel' is formed from the adverb grovelling which has been wrongly supposed to be a present participle of the supposed primary verb 'grovel'. The verbs sidle and darkle are other examples of back-formations derived from Old Adverbs like sideling and darkling. 'Nestle' is believed to be another back-formation derived from the noun nestling, an inhabitant of a nest. The verb to edit in the sense of "to prepare for publication as an editor does" is another instance of back-formation. Along with these instances of back-formations may be considered those endings common to certain groups of words which have come to be treated as separate words. For instance we have the humorous definition :—"Orthodoxy is my doxy and heterodoxy is another man's doxy". We also speak of the different -isms like communism and socialism which prevail in the modern world. In these examples the ending common to a group of words is considered as the name of the genus of which the things signified by these words are species.

Shortening or the substitution of a part of a word for the whole in hurried or colloquial use has led to the formation of a large number of new words in English. When the original word and the shortened form come to be used by the same speakers with a slight difference in the meaning or the tone of feeling implied, we can consider the shortened word as a new word derived from the longer one. Thus omnibus and bus, photograph and photo, bicycle and bike are not exactly synonymous, because the longer word is reserved for more dignified use while the shorter one always occurs in familiar conversation. In certain instances

a jocular abbreviation of a word is seen to have ousted the longer form from general use. Wig, the shortened form of peri-wig, is an example of this. In many cases the shortened form of a word undergoes a development in meaning which is not shared by the original word. Though cab was at first used as the abbreviation of carbriolet, the two words now convey different meanings. Similarly, miss and missis (Mrs.) though derived from the same word mistress by shortening, now convey different meanings, the former being used for an unmarried woman and the latter for a married one.

Though the word gent was formerly used as an abbreviation for gentleman, it now has a deprecatory implication.

DROPPING A VOWEL :

In the Middle English period was started the habit of dropping an initial vowel preceding a stressed syllable of a word and this habit was continued in the early Modern Egnlish period. The word size was thus derived from assized. The standard magnitude of an article was usually settled by an assize or sitting of a constituted authority. Thus the authorized magnitude of a thing came to be called its "assize" and this in course of time became shortened to 'size' which is the present form of word in this sense. But the earlier word is also retained in usage with the original sense of the sitting of a constituted authority or court to administer justice. Similarly we find that the word tend, which now means to nurse or look after, though derived from the longer word attend, has undergone a slight change of meaning along with shortening. Mend, the shortened form of amend is now used for trivial occasions (as when we speak of mending a shoe) while amend is meant for more dignified usage (as in amending an Act of Parliament). 'Fence' from 'defence', 'sport' from 'disport' vie from envie (to challenge), 'fend' from 'defend' and 'spite from' 'despite', are other instances of shortening and in each case we find that the meaning of the shorter word is different from that of the longer one.

ABBREVIATION :

Besides words which owe their origin to shortening in pronunciation there are others which have been formed out of abbreviations used in writing. Sometimes the initials of words in a phrase are treated as a word, represented by the names of the letter in pronunciation. Thus we refer to an M.P. (Pronounced empee or a D.C.L. pronunced dee see el.) There is a curious instance of the formation of a word by this process in "Culprit". This is from an abbreviation of the Latin words culpable; prest, meaning ("he is) guilty, (and we are) ready to prove it." These words originally formed the reply made on behalf of the crown to a prisoner's plea that he was not guilty. The usual abbreviation for the words in writing was culprest. This was later corrupted into culprist and was wrongly supposed to mean 'guilty man'. It is in this sense that the word is now used.

(c) ROOT-CREATION :

Besides composition and derivation which have already been dealt with at length, there is a third method of word-making known as Root creation. The words in the English vocabulary which have not been inherited from Old English or adopted from any foreign language or formed out of older words by composition or derivation are seen to be the products of Root-creation. This process is resorted to when there is no other way of expressing an idea for which there is no word already existing in the language. Root-creation involves a process which is known by the Greek name of Onomatopoeia which means 'name-making'. The Greeks have used this term to express the idea that a noise or the object producing it is often denoted by an 'echoic' word, formed in imitation of the noise. Bang, boom, giggle, hiss, mumble, pop, quack, rumble, simmer, titter, whiz are all examples of echoic words which serve to illustrate root-creation in English. In all these words, as well as in the name of the bird, cuckoo, the elements constituting the sound of the echoic word join together to produce the mental effect similar to the one produced by the noise itself.

FORMATION OF WORD FROM SOUND :

In a similar way the sound of a word may symbolically indicate the movement or shape of an object. A word containing long vowels which are usually uttered slowly suggests the idea of slow movement while the repetition of the same consonant conveys the idea of repetition of movement. A syllable ending in a stopped consonant like p, t, or k, and following a short vowel suggests quick, abrupt action. Harsh or violent movements are denoted by a series of consonants scr- (as in screech) which are harsh in sound or difficult to utter. A hissing sound is conveyed by sibilants like s, z, as in hiss, buzz. This phonetic symbolism is implied in all root creation in the language. Words like blob, dab, fidget, flabbergast, hump, see-saw, thump, wobble, zig-zag owe their origin to our sense of the intrinsic expressiveness of certain sound combinations.

WORD-FORMATION FROM NAMES :

In addition to words which are formed by the processes of composition, derivation and root-creation, new words are also added to the vocabulary from the names of places and persons connected with the objects or actions described by them. Thus we have sandwich from the name of the Earl of Sandwich who remained at the gaming table for twenty four hours eating only a little beef between two slices of toasted bread. The Davy Lamp is named after its inventor Sir Humphry Davy, while the adjective 'quixotic' reminds us of Don Quixote, the extravagantly romantic hero of Cervantes' satirical romance. Worsted (woollen yarn) is from the name of village near Norwich and Calico is from Calicut. Quisling (a treacherous betrayer of one's country) is from the name of the Norwegian politician and Chauvinism (exaggerated partriotism) is

from the name of Nicholas Chauvin, the devoted follower of Napoleon. These modern examples on the model of 'pander' from Pandarus of Greek literature and 'canter' from Canterbury show how new words continue to be formed from the names of persons and places famous in some way or other. As a result of word-making by the different processes already described, the vast and heterogeneous vocabulary of English promises to be further enriched in the years to come.

Q. 52. "Besides borrowings from other languages and deliberate word-making there are several other ways in which English vocabulary has been enlarged". Discuss the most important of these.

Ans. When we study the history of the English language we find that there have been few changes in the grammar, spelling and pronunciation of the language since the middle of the seventeenth century. It is true that some slight modifications have been made, particularly in English spelling and pronunciation since the Age of the Restoration. These are nothing when compared to the enormous growth of the English vocabulary during the last three hundred years. This unprecedented growth of the vocabulary was the natural consequence of the necessity of giving expression to new ideas and ideologies and new shades of meaning pertaining to the conditions of life in the modern world. As civilization advances words have to be found for the new inventions and new discoveries which are being made every day. Thus we see that while Johnson's Dictionary produced in 1755 records only about 48,000 words, The Oxford Dictionary takes into account nearly 400,000 English words. Even if we make allowance for the fact that Johnson's Dictionary did not give an exhaustive list of words actually in use at the time and that Johnson's conservatism refused to grant literary currency to such common English words as fun, clever and stingy, and admit that *The Oxford Dictionary* contains innumerable academic and technical terms as well as obsolete words which cannot be regarded as part of the English language proper, still the fact remains that the vocabulary of English has grown enormously since Johnson's time.

The truth is that the English language, at present, has the richest and the most varied and heterogeneous vocabulary in the world. "This is partly due to historical factors, partly to "the genius of the language" and its readiness to absorb words from foreign tongues or to make new ones where existing terms are inadequate".[1] As borrowings from other languages and deliberate word-making by composition derivation and root-creation have already been discussed, the other ways of enlarging the vocabulary will be considered here.

1. F. T. Wood : *An Outline History of the English Language.*

GIVING NEW SIGNIFICANCE TO OLDER WORDS :

The first of these consists in giving a new significance to an older word. By this means its meaning becomes extended, and sometimes even reversed, in course of time. As an example of this we may consider the word manufacture which originally meant "to make by hand". But it has now become almost reversed in meaning so that we distinguish between hand-made articles and manufactured goods (goods produced in a factory, or with the help of machines). Another interesting example of extension of meaning is seen in the word radical. It originally meant "going to the root of thing", and was used in the seventeenth century in the sense of "through". It then became applied to the group of theologians who, instead of accepting the established teachings of Christians wanted to probe to the bottom of things to search out the truth for themselves. As such theologians were disapproved of by the average churchman, the word acquired the idea of revolution and disrespect for established authority. By the middle of the nineteenth century the word had assumed a political complexion and underwent a similar development of meaning. In the early years of the 20th century, it was used in the country districts of the South of England as if it were synonymous with "prodigal" while in the later nineteenth century it was taken to stand for all that was most to be detested. It was even regarded as a synonym for a scoundrel.

A word which came to England with the German Prince Rupert and his troops at the time of the Civil War was now the common one "plunder". Its original meaning was "household effect" and its new meaning shows what respect German troops had for the household belongings of the English. It is interesting to note how wars and periods of conflict have led to change or extension of meaning in many words. The second World War has given a new meaning to the old theatrical term black out (which meant the darkening of the stage) just as the first World War had given its modern meaning to propaganda (derived from the verb "to propagate" and originally designating a committee of the Roman Catholic Church for organising and directing mission work).

USING ONE PART OF SPEECH AS ANOTHER :

A second means of enlarging the vocabulary is by using a word which is normally one part of speech as another. English is almost unrivalled in this capacity to use a noun as a verb, object or some other part of speech. The conjunction 'but' is used as a verb and noun when we say "But me no buts". It is used as an adjective when we speak of a "but clause" meaning one introduced by a 'but'. The nouns park, pocket, foot, head, shoulder are all used as verbs too. We can speak of parking a car, pocketing an amount of money, footing it along a rugged road, heading the list of winners, and shouldering some responsibility. We can elbow our way through a crowd, or eye a person with suspicion, and we can assert that we will not stomach being treated unjustly and we

can check anyone who is rude to us. Similarly a person can nose around for picking up gossip or finger some delicate material or thumb the pages of the latest novel or head a lady into a carriage after handing the porter a tip. Colloquially we can use "to lip" (to talk) or "to mouth" (either mouth some abuse or move the lips without uttering sounds).

USE OF ABBREVIATIONS :

Adjectives often acquire the sense of nouns by the commission of the substantives they had qualified. For instance "the rich people" become 'the rich', a submarine vessel becomes a submarine. The word panic which is now used as a noun and also as a verb (rarely) was originally an adjective derived from the name of the god Pan. When Pan stamped his foot in anger, animals of the woods were seized by a 'panic' fear which made them to scatter in terror. Many words have been added to the English vocabulary from the abbreviations of words or expressions existing earlier in the language. Thus we have lab for laboratory, maths for mathematics and zoo for zoological gardens. Similarly bus has taken the place of the earlier omnibus, and photo, bike and pram (for photograph, bicycle and perambulator) have been accepted in conversation. In 'pram' we have an instance of synocopation and abbreviation, as perambulator first is synocopated to perambulator and then shortened to pram. In all these words though the abbreviations are already in use, the original words are not yet lost sight of. But in some others the shortened form has been accepted for such a long period that the original expressions have been entirely forgotten. Among such words are mob (from Latin mobile vulgus meaning the fickle crowd), cab (from the French word cabriolet) and taxi (from French taxi-meter-cabriolet), chap (from earlier chapman, meaning dealer), hussy (from house wife), hack (from hackney), wig (from periwig). Fan as in football fan is from fanatic, piano from piano forte, curio from curiosity, brandy from brandywine, port from Oporto.

SHORTENING OF LENGTHY LATIN PHRASES :

One type of abbreviation in English is from lengthy and unwieldy Latin phrases from which only one or two significant words are retained. Thus we have quorum (Literally "of whom" which has the first Latin word in the instructions to the justices of the peace specifying the minimum number of them to be present in court to make its proceedings valid). From this has come the modern applications of the word. Status quo is the shortened form of the phrase status Quo ante bellum (the state existing before war). Certain prayers like Ave Maria and Paternoster are referred to by the first Latin words with which they begin.

SYNOCOPATION :

Another process by which new words are added to the vocabulary is known as synocopation. It consists in the sliding of a vowel so as to allow the consonants on either side to run together. By this process the

the result of synocopation. The longer word perambulator first loses its first vowel and is changed to perambulator. This, in turn, is shortened to pram. We find examples of synocopation in once, else, hence etc.....the earlier forms of these having been ones, elles, henes (all disyllabic words). Similarly the past participles boren, shoren, toren, forloren have become synocopated to born, shorn, torn, and forlorn.

TELESCOPING :

Telescoping is the name given to another process by which the vocabulary is enlarged. Here two words are combined into one so as to produce a new word. To don is telescoped from 'to do on' and to doff is from "to do off". Atone is another word derived by the telescoping of the two words at one. Shakespeare uses atone as verb meaning "set at one" or reconcile. The intransitive verb "to atone for one's sins" is a later development. In pinafore and overall we have other examples of telescoping.

METANALYSIS :

Closely related to telescoping is another process known as metanalysis. Here we have re-analysis or different analysis of the sounds in an expression. In a group of words like 'science and arts' in slovenly pronunciation, the consonant at the end of 'and' can become attached to the vowel in 'arts' and the whole expression can sound like 'science and darts'. Many words in use in present day English are the result of Metanalysis. Thus a nick name was, till the middle of the 15th century a nickname, meaning an also-name or a name which was conferred on a person in addition to his real name. A newt is from an ewt and tawdry is from St. Audrey, the patron saint of finery, at whose feat a lot of lace and trinkets of inferior quality were sold every year. Sometimes metanalysis consists in an n-being attached from the noun to the article. An adder thus becomes an adder, a napron becomes an apron, and a narang becomes an orange.

PORTMANTEU WORDS :

The formation of what are known as portamanteau words is another source for the enlargement of English vocabulary. In a portmanteau word part of one word is combined with part of another word so that the resulting combination contains in it the ideas behind both the original terms. Thus Carlyle referred to the section of humanity whose social superiority rested on the possession of a gig as gigmanity, Galloping in triumph was humorously referred to by the portmanteau word galumph. Tragi-comedy (partaking of the qualities of tragedy and comedy), melodrama (containing the blood and thunder play as well as plentiful music), lunch (a combination of lump and hunch). radiogram (from radio set and gramophone), electrocute (from electric and execute) comintern (from communist international) are other examples of portmanteau words.

WORDS FORMED WITH INITIAL LETTERS OF OTHER WORDS :

There are certain words in English which are made up of the initial of other words. These initials being more frequently used than the word for which they stand, have come to be treated as separate words. Thus we speak of a B.A. or an M.A. instead of a Bachelor of Arts or a Master of Arts. An M.P. is more frequently used than a Member of Parliament. Other examples are B.B. C. C., I.P., F.B.I., A.R.A. etc. These are some initials which actually combine to form a word like those of the Woman's Royal Naval Service (W.R.N.S.) popularly known as "the Wrens", or the name of the secret police of the Nazis-Gestapo (Geheime Staats Polizei).

CORRUPTION OF FOREIGN OR DIFFICULT WORDS :

Corruption or misunderstanding of a foreign word or a difficult native one accounts for many new formations which have enriched the English vocabulary. An instance of this is seen in Whitsun Day. This is a corruption of Whit Sunday, meaning White Sunday on which all the converts in Primitive Christian church wore white clothes, symbolic of purification. By metanalysis Whit Sunday became Whitsun Day. On the analogy of this there soon was coined Whitsun week, Whitsun tide, Whitsun Sunday even Whitsun Monday. Goodbye is a corruption of "God be with you", and jeopardy is a corruption of the French words jeu parti (an evenly matched game, that is a situation fraught with risk). By modification the word jeopardy has now come to denote the more abstract idea of the risk itself.

MISTAKEN ETYMOLOGY :

There are some words in the language which have attained their present form and usage through mistaken notions regarding their etymology. The word 'island' which is actually derived from the Anglo-Saxon island had never appeared with an 's' in its spelling till 1546. The 's' was inserted as a result of false etymology, suggested by 'isle' which was felt to be an abbreviation of the longer word. Another example of false etymology is seen in the word posthumous. The word was originally spelt without the u and meant "coming after in order of time". By mistaken etymology the second half of the word—humous was believed to be connected with death and burial. So the meaning 'after death' was developed. A very interesting example of false etymology is provided by the word helpmate. In the Bible there is a passage regarding the creation of Eve : God said, "It is not good that man should be alone; I will make him a help meet for him." Here meet is an adjective meaning fitting or suitable. Since the help in this case happened to be a companion to man and since she was his mate or wife, an idea arose that help meet was a compound word which stood for mate who helped man. It was also felt that helpmeet was a corruption of helpmate and accordingly a new word (helpmate) was added to the English vocabulary.

was added to the English vocabulary.

SLANG TERMS :

The vocabulary of Standard English is also enriched by slang terms, which, in course of time, find their way into good English. The word slang was first used about 1756. Before this period the word used for slang was cant and it was used for the language employed by thieves, smugglers and the under-world generally. Till the beginning of the 18th century slang was ignored by the lexicographers. But with the beginning of the reign of Queen Anne we find a number of dictionaries of slang being compiled as a result of an awakening interest in the underworld. In the most important of these, namely, Francis Grose's "Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue (1785)" we find a number of words which are now accepted in Standard English. Among the slang words used in 1725 are bet (wages) cove (man, fellow, rogue) chap (dealer in stolen goods) fun (slippery, trick) pinch (to steal) shabby (in sorry rig) trip (short voyage) adrift (loose, discharged) coax (wheedle) lick pommel (to beat) pluck (courage) scamp (highwayman). Most of these words have already passed into respectable English though in course of time come to enlarge the vocabulary of Standard English.

WORDS DERIVED FROM NAMES :

Words derived from proper or personal name also have contributed to the enlarging of vocabulary. Thomas Morton's comedy "Speed the Plough" has provided the language with a name symbolising prudish, strait-laced public opinion, in Mrs. Grundy. Earlier in the history of the language came Utopia from Thomas Moore's book 'Utopia.' Swift has given Lillput and Lilliputian while we owe to Dickens Gamp, (as a synonym for umbrella), Bumbledom and Wellerism. Mackintoshes, cardigans, wellingtons, bloomers and bowlers are names of garment called after those who first introduced them to the public. A guy is called after the notorious Guy Fawkes of the gunpowder plot. One Lord Brougham has been immortalised through the name of a particular kind of horsedrawn carriage and one Mr. Hansom is remembered because of the many hansom cabs which were to be met with in the streets of London in the latter part of the 19th century. In sadism and sadist, the evil reputation of the Marquis de Sade, who had combined sexual perversion with cruelty, is perpetuated. Sandwich, lynch, boycott are other examples of words derived from the names of person. Among recent words derived from proper names are Belishabeacon, Anderson shelter, and Quisling.

FREAK FORMATIONS :

In addition to all the different kinds of words which have already been mentioned as having contributed to the growth of English vocabulary, we have now to consider some freak formations. Among the freak

formations which have enlarged the English vocabulary, teetotaller (probably a stammering pronunciation of the expression meaning 'total abstainer'), tank (the military weapon) and publican as a substitute for the older word inn-keeper. Funny-bone for the humerus is another freak formation implying a pun on the sound of the word humerus. Though a few of these freak formations have survived in the accepted vocabulary, the majority of them are coined for an occasion and forgotten soon after.

NONCE-WORDS:

Of the different kinds of words which have been added to the vocabulary from time to time, only those which satisfy a really felt need have finally come to stay. Though there was a time when innumerable Dutch words were introduced into English many of them have not been retained in current usage. But 'plump' and 'aloof' are among the Dutch words which have survived because they stand for ideas unaffected by social or political changes and not expressed by earlier English words. This cannot be said of all new additions to the vocabulary. Some of them being mere nonce-words that is, words created for the time, to serve a particular need of expression) are soon discarded. The late 17th century noun "trimmer" meaning a politician who trims his sails to any wind and is therefore considered an opportunist, is no longer in use. Trimer, like the early eighteenth century word highflier (meaning a High-Churchman) was a nonce-word and having served its purpose neither of those is now in current usage.

WORDS FROM VARIOUS OTHER SOURCES:

Political and social development, like religious controversies, have been responsible for the introduction of many new words in the language. 'The cabinet' and people (in the modern sense) were both the outcome of the Civil War while methodist and methodism date back to the mid-eigthteenth century. The terms liberal and conservative were applied in the mid-nineteenth century to the earlier whigs and tories. At about the same time, socialism, communism, capitalism, free trade, tariff etc. were introduced. Though we cannot at the present time fix the parentage of most English words it is possible to trace some of them to particular authors who either coined or popularized them.

WORDS COINED BY VARIOUS AUTHORS:

The translators of the Bible have been responsible for introducing into the language many words now in common use. Among them are scape-goat, beautiful, long suffering, peace maker etc. The Bible has also been the source for many popular phrases like "to kill the fatted calf", "the return of the prodigal son" and "to cast pearls before swine". To Shakespeare we owe innumerable words and phrases which include multitudinous, incarnadine, dauntless, dwindle, lack-lustre, accost, and "the sere and yellow leaf", "the dogs of war", "the seamy side", "hoist with his own petard", and "patience on a monument."

language elfin and blatant, Milton has given us irresponsible and pandemonium, Sir Thomas Moore has given us "utopia" and utopian". Swift in his Gulliver's Travels introduced 'lilliputian' while Sheridan's play popularised 'malapropism'. Edmund Burke has been the author of electioneering, representation, municipality, financial diplomacy, and colonial, while Benjamin Disraeli has introduced the famous phrase "a leap in the dark". Macaulay has coined constituency and Carlyle has introduced outcome. To Huxley we owe 'agonistic', to Coleridge 'pessimism', to Shelley 'idealism' and to Tennyson 'fairy-tale.' Among modern writers, Bernard Shaw has introduced "The Life Force". Aldous Huxley has brought in "non-attachment" and Kipling has been the author of "the whiteman's burden". 'The never land" is an expression coined by Sir James Barrie while Erehown and Erehwonian have been the contributions of Samuel Butler earlier in the century. Enough has been said already to indicate the various ways in which English vocabulary has been enriched and enlarged. As the growth of the vocabulary still continues and is never likely to come to an end, the revised editions of the New English Dictionary will have to be running into several volumes more with each revision.

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SOME TERMS IN LINGUISTICS (22)

Q. 53. Write short notes on homophones and homonyms, fossils, euphemism, folk etymology and intonation.

Ans. *1. Homophones and homonyms:* The name "homophones" based on the Greek words 'homos' meaning same and phone meaning sound, is used in English to designate words which are spelt differently but are pronounced alike. We have examples of such words in red colour and read (past tense of the verb read), boy and buoy, and knight and night, and write and right, and site and sight. The homophones are kept apart by their spellings and there cannot be any ambiguity in the use of homophones in writing. In fact the unphonetic spelling of English, inspite of its many drawbacks, is a real help in avoiding ambiguity in the written language where homophones are concerned. In actual usage it seems to be almost a general rule that when there is a real danger of serious confusion between a pair of homophones, one or the other must disappear from the language. When homophones are thus capable of giving rise to confusion in the usage, we say there is conflict of homophones. This conflict is removed by the disappearance of one of the forms. For example, there arose such a conflict in the history of English between the homophones queen and quean (a loose woman) which ultimately led to the disappearance of 'quean' from English usage. Queen, derived from Old English 'cwen' was pronounced as it is pronounced today, from the end of the 15th century while quean was pronounced as (cwe : n) from the seventeenth till the middle of the 18th century. But after this the two words became identical in sound and the serious misunderstanding which would arise from continuing to use the words side by side, led to the speedy disappearance of 'quean' from usage except in certain dialect forms where it is pronounced differently from queen.

The word 'homonyms' is used to designate words pronounced differently though spelt identically. It is based on the Greek word 'homos' meaning same and the adjectival 'nymos' meaning name. Like homophones, homonyms are likely to arise in a relatively uninflected language like English but as a rule the contexts in which the homophones or homonyms are used, help to avoid real ambiguity or confusion in meaning arising from them. We have examples of homonyms in lead (name of the metal) and lead (verb) beat, read (present forms of the verbs) and beat, read (past forms of the verbs). As there is the danger of ambiguity in the written form when homonyms are employed, many people are of the opinion that a more phonetic spelling would be a welcome change.

Fossils : It is a fact universally observed in the study of language that though phonetic decay is incessantly operating to alter the form of a language, yet the habits of speech are so regular and the associative forces so strong, that words, when they change, are likely to go in group, so that they retain the same similarity of sound to each other, though the sound itself may be altered beyond recognition. But there is a strong counter-influence acting against this tendency in language. Thought tends to individualize this or that expression by ascribing to it an idea or function which is not shared by the other members of its group. Hence it often happens that a word which was one of a whole class or a form which was universal at one stage of the language, becomes isolated. Thus separated from its fellows, it ceases to share their future destiny. If they perish, it does not perish with them and its preservation has nothing to do with their survival. It may either become the centre of a new group or may remain embedded, and lost or preserved to future ages, not as one of the original group to which it belonged, but having the same individuality as a 'fossil' found embedded in the earth.

English abounds in such fossils and they belong to all conceivable kinds. Sometimes a word or a meaning has completely become obsolete except in a particular phrase or idiom which is in common use. Again an old construction once universally used may have died out, but may still be lingering in certain phrases. In the same way an old grammatical form occasionally survives because it has become petrified in a single word or a small group of words.

We find, for instance, a considerable number of survivals of old forms, or constructions, in certain words which are still used. The word whilom (meaning, in former days) is familiar to us as an archaic adverb. It happens to be the only word left in the language as still preserving the universal Anglo-Saxon ending um for the dative plural. In the gradual simplification of English accidence most other inflexional endings disappeared. Meantime the Old English dative plural from hwilum which meant 'at times' had become petrified in the sense of 'formerly' and as such it was not affected by the decay of inflexions which did away with the endings of other words. It remained as it was, because it was no longer looked upon as the dative plural of the noun 'hwil' but as an adverb meaning 'formerly'.

In 'nonce' we have an example of a curious fossil word, now occurring in the phrase 'for the nonce', meaning "for the occasion" or "for the time being". This phrase has come from the former expression for 'then once', where then was a corruption of the old English dative from the demonstrative pronoun that (θ em) which is no longer used. The transference of the 'no' in "for then once" to the beginning of 'once', resulting in the formation of the phrase 'for the nonce', with the old meaning "for that one time" is comparable to the transference of then from "a nadder" to the article so that we have now "an adder," instead of the old "a nadder".

Alive is a singular example of another fossil form. It is derived from the Old English expression on life (pronounced on live) and meaning 'in life'. Life was the dative singular form of the Old English noun, li:f. At the end of a word, the letter f had the same pronunciation as now, but between two vowels the f was always voiced to a v sound. The final e in life which marked the dative ending caused the f to become voiced to v. As the expression 'on life' (later clipped to alive) had already become established in usage as an independent word the final e in it was preserved even when other inflexion endings were lost. To this preservation of the dative ending we owe the v sound in 'alive'. But for it the word now would have been a life. It happens that stray relics of ancient usage are often challenged by critics who observe their isolation and conclude that they are wrong or at least contrary to the spirit of language. A diachronic approach to the study of language will show us that the correctness of a form or construction is not to be questioned because there is nothing exactly like it in present day English, just as the correctness of a word is not to be called in question because there is no other which is identical with it in sound and spelling.

Euphemism in language shows that our sense of decency or propriety acts as a powerful force in changing the meaning of words or in driving them out of use. No state of human society has been so low as to have been exempt from the operation of this sense of decency and propriety on its language. In euphemism which is criticised as mere prudery, we find the self-conscious expression of tendencies which have affected language from the most ancient times and which have their roots in the most primitive philosophy of the human race. Mankind, in general, has always been loath to "call a spade a spade". The origins of euphemism are, therefore, to be sought not in our complex civilization, but in those conceptions of language which have been common to men in every stage of culture. All human beings instinctively avoid the mention of death and use euphemistic expressions like "he has passed away" or " he is gone". The savage is reluctant even to utter the name of a person who is dead or to give to it a child. Among uncivilized people certain words are allowable under one set of circumstances, but forbidden under another. The habit of linguistic caution thus formed ultimately leads to what we now call decency of language, and euphemism becomes immediately intelligible.

The Greek wo..c euphemism had ceremonial connections. It is composed of the parts, 'eu' meaning well and 'phemi', to speak. The word corresponding to this meant "to speak fair". It was the solemn warning given to the worshipper not to disturb the sacrifice by an ill-omned word. The superstitious notion involved in using the correct formulae of speech manifests itself in all languages and among all communities of people. Even the most uncivilized Australian aborigines speak a language which is provided with all the apparatus of an elaborated

euphemism. Death and disaster can very well serve as a starting point of our study of euphemism. Depart, decease and pass away are euphemistic synonyms for the unpleasant word 'die'. Misfortune, mischance, accident, casualty, disaster were all used originally as euphemism though most of them would not now be recognized as such. But in later examples of euphemism we find that the obvious fear of ill-luck is not the cause for the euphemistic word. The habit of employing softened or veiled expressions, once established, naturally spreads to all the relations of life and may at any moment become intensified by special causes whether of reverence or sense of courtesy or passing fashions.

Though profance language has always been considered vulgar, the propensity to curse and swear is deep-rooted in man. The result of this is a compromise which has yielded a large body of euphemistic expressions. 'S death,' 'S life, Zounds are all euphemistic oaths in which only the final letter of the genitive God's is pronounced. Gad is another euphemism for God. With the advance of refinement there is a general reluctance to mention in plain terms the various parts of the human body and different articles of attire. Hence limbs has replaced legs in euphemistic usage, flannels and lines have become the name for under-garments and of late, skirt has come to be substituted for petticoat.

Moral delinquency very often is the object of courteous euphemism 'He is short in his accounts' is a euphemistic way of saying that he is an embezzler. When a man is accused of a crime he is said to be 'in trouble'. A person for whom the police is combing the country is said to be 'wanted'. Executed is a politer word than 'hanged'. "You are distorting the facts," "You are not making an accurate statement" and the Elizabethan expression "I fear you have done yourself some wrong" are euphemistic ways of saying "you are lying". Euphemism may often consist in substituting for a positive word a denial of the opposite idea as in using 'untidy' for 'dirty' or intemperate for drunken and insincere for deceiftul.

Degenerating of meaning in words is very often due to euphemism. When a decent word with no improper or unpleasant associations becomes habitually used as a euphemistic expression for disagreeable or indecent idea it ends up with actually expressing the meaning which it was originally meant merely to suggest or even to conceal. Such degeneration of meaning has overtaken words like wanton, gay, fast and reckless.

Folk-etymology : Though systematic etymology is a subject which requires long and painful study and can be cultivated only at the cost of eternal vigilance, curiosity about the make-up of words results in our unconscious attempts to associate together words which resemble each other in sound and show a real or fanciful similarity in meaning though they are not at all related in origin. The process which makes etymologists

of ordinary fold is known as folk-etymology. Though the pairs of words like hag and haggle, hawk and hawker, raven and ravening have nothing to relate to them in their origin, if they become associated together in the popular mind this erroneous association may have a perceptible effect on the form or sense of words. Thus folk etymology comes to have a transmuting power in language.

Folk etymology is seen to have affected the spelling of a word like 'surloin' which is changed into 'sirloin' as if the first part of the word sur- (meaning above) is related to sir. Similarly the spelling 'rhyme' is an instance of folk etymology which made the word, actually derived from Anglo-Saxon rim (measure) to be associated with the Greek rhythmos. Another instance of folk-etymology is seen in sand blind, originally derived from sam-blind where sam is an Anglo-Sàxon prefix meaning semi-or half so that the word meant half-blind. But when the prefix 'sam' became obsolete people began to connect the first part of the word with sand especially because sand in the eyes makes one blind. In shamefaced, derived from shamefast, we have another instance of folk-etymology. The second element of the original word (fast) was the Anglo-Saxon adjective meaning 'confirmed' and the word Shamefast was equivalent to 'modest', in a good sense. When the old English termination had gone out of use, folk-etymology caught hold of the word and 'corrected'—'fast' into 'faced', so that the word has come to have no longer the old sense of modest, but assumed the new sense of showing bashfulness or shame in one's face. Another instance of folk-etymology is seen in purblind. It was formerly pure blind that is, completely sightless. The common meaning of near-sighted is due to the mistaken idea that the first syllable of the word is a corruption of pore.

In all the examples of folk-etymology we have instances of the operation of analogy. Analogy is a force which operates in all speech as it pervades all human thought and it has been responsible for far-reaching changes in the structure of the English language. Confusion of grammatical constructions and inflexional and derivative forms due to the operation of analogy has been the basis for folk-etymology in most words.

· *Intonation :* In a language like English where inflexional endings have been mostly discarded and order has been rigidly fixed, intonation will naturally come to pay a more and more important role. As the order of the words in Modern English cannot be changed so as to place emphatic words in appropriate positions as is done in Latin, we have to resort to other means for conveying shades of meaning depending on emphasis. The varying of tones is one of the chief means by which emphasis is obtained in an English sentence. The musical variety of tone to indicate shades of meaning is the most natural thing in a Germanic language like English with its relatively fixed stress. In a language like Chinese which

does not have the distinctions of inflexions or even the parts of speech, a fundamental system of tones and tone groups (tonemes) is made use of for conveying the ideas. Here a change of tone can turn the expression for 'to buy' into the expression for "to sell". English, however, does not depend on intonation to this extent in expressing sense modifications. Nevertheless a rising or falling tone in the parts of the sentence is made use of in determining much of its meaning. A very close bond is also established between stress and tone, a strong stress often 'corresponding with a rising tone.' The same group of words as "you are going to marry that girl" may be a declaratory or interrogative sentence depending on whether the tone falls or rises at its end. Other tone variations in the same group of words may be used to express surprise at the idea of your marrying the girl or at your marrying that girl in particular and not anyone else. This by no means exhausts the possibilities of intonation variation in the same sentence.

There are good number of sentence forms in which the meaning depends upon the varying of tone of voice in which the verb 'do' is uttered. A phonetic transcript in the case of a sentence of this kind does not tell us the whole truth about the way it is uttered. For the full reproduction of the sounds on which the meaning depends, we will have to use a notation which shows the rise and fall of the intonation in speech. It would be effective if a wavy line were used above the words, adjusting its height or depression according to the degree of raising or lowering of the word. What has been already said about intonation shows how important it is in Modern English speech and how closely it is connected with syntax.

Q. 54. Give an account of the contributions made by the Bible Translation to the making of English.

Ans. No other work, except Shakespeare's has had so much influence on the phraseology of the English language as the Authorized Version of the Bible and earlier Bible translations, particularly, those of Tyndale and Coverdale. In evaluating the contributious made by the various versions of the Holy writ to the moulding of the English language enough attention has not always been paid to the earlier translations like those of Wyclif and Tyndale and Coverdale which have been followed at a long distance by the Authorized Version of 1611. For instance Tyndale's rendering of the seventh verse of the sixth chapter in the Gospel according to St. Mathew reads—"Babble not much" while the same rendered into the less picturesque "Use not vain repetition" in the Authorized Version. The need to find fitting expression for the thoughts of the sacred writers called forth abundance of ingenuity in the invention of new words and phrases. The fact that the Bible has been the most widely read and most frequently quoted of all English books, has made its phraseology enter into the speech of the multitudes of English speakers with ease and rapidity. The translations like that of Purvey in 1388, made before the invention of printing were restricted in circulation and hence the novelties of expression contained in them did not affect the general language as did the expression in the later versions. Again, the translations from the time of Tyndale and Coverdale were based on the Hebrew and Greek originals or on Luther's German which had been translated from modern Latin versions. The recourse to the originals revealed new shades of meanings which could not be fully and clearly expressed in the traditional language piety. Translators like Tyndale and Coverdale had to strive, often with felicitous success, to supply the new needs.

CONTRIBUTION OF TYNDALE :

To Miles Coverdale the English language is indebted for such beautiful expressions as loving-kindness, tender mercy, the valley of the shadow of death, and the avenger of blood. Tyndale who had an eye for the telling word and the apt phrase invented long-suffering, peace-maker, stumbling block, the fatted calf, filthy lucre, shewbread, mercy seat, and dayspring, besides giving wide currency to the now familiar word 'beautiful' by using it in his translation of the Bible. In the word scape-goat which is believed to have been a mistranslation, we have one of those lucky accidents which have enriched the language. We should be thankful to Tyndale for the invention of this very useful word even if it

meant a mistranslation. Another contribution of Tyndale is the word elder as the literal translation of the Greek presbuteros in place of the anglicized form of priest introduced by Wyclif and Purvey in their translations. Thus Tyndale's New Testament is the source of the ecclesiastical sense of 'elder', and the facts that in the English Bible the word priest is not used as the designation of a Christian minister, has been responsible for the popular association of the word either with a Roman Catholic clergyman or a minister of Jewish or heathen worship.

Phrases like 'Prodigal Son' and 'mess of pattage' which are now generally accepted as Biblical, have not come into the language through any rendering of Scripture, but through chapter-headings in the Pre-Authorized Version of Bibles. Similarly the oft-quoted phrase "sweat of thy brow" and its imitations cannot be found in any existing version of the Book of Genesis, where we find instead "sweat of thy face". We have to conclude that "the sweat of thy brow" has survived from one of the Lollard versions of the Bible which disappeared during the 15th century.

LATER TRANSLATORS :

The Bible translators after Tyndale and Coverdale seem to have done little by way of invention of new words and phrases. Because Tyndale had a great genius for the telling phrase and the idiomatic yet beautiful rendering, a vast deal of his phraseology seems to have been taken over unchanged by the compilers of the Authorised Version. It is in its telling phrases, its beautiful prose rhythm and syntax, as well as in its simple but effective and often poetic style, that the Authorised Version has been a dominant influence, not only on the literary language but also on the spoken. It is particularly in the Old Testament that Tyndale's gift for phrase-making has passed by way of the 1611 Version into the language to enrich it. The last chapter of the Ecclesiastes particularly excels in the right rendering of the beauty and strength of Hebrew poetry. The now familiar phrases such as "the burden and heat of the day", "the powers that be", "eat, drink and be merry" and "the fatted calf" occurring in the Authorised Version were of Tyndale's coinage. Some of Tyndale's literal translations of the Greek originals were replaced in the Authorized Version by the traditional English renderings based on the Vulgate. Where Tyndale had used congregation, the Authorised Version has "church" and 'grace' has been substituted for Tyndale's 'favour'. Again 'charity' has been substituted for Tyndale's 'love'. In the famous passage in the VII Chapter of Luke Tyndale has :"to the poor is the glad tidings preached", while the Authorized Version has "to the poor the gospel is preached". Tyndale's version has given to the language the very valuable and familiar phrase 'glad tidings'.

USE OF ARCHAIC WORDS IN TRANSLATIONS :

Most people expect the language of Holy writ to be a little archaic, a

little removed from the familiar everyday usage, a little suggestive of mystery and employing a good deal of symbolizing imagery. Hence the translators of the Authorized Version wisely chose to make their English a little archaic and to replace the colloquial usage of Tyndale by more dignified parlance. King James's translators knew that a more remote and more dignified language is needed for some aspects of divine revelation and that tradition has invested certain sacred words with special strength in language. Because of this knowledge they carefully steered a middle course in language which was a compromise between the extreme attempt at literalness and the colloquialism sometimes characterising some of Tyndale's "just right" phrases, and the clinging to tradition and Latin terms which often marked the early Roman Catholic versions. It is quite possible that the slightly archaizing tendency of the Authorized Version was responsible for preserving in current use many words which were already becoming obsolete and would naturally have gone out of use for ever. The Authorized Version has revived these words and given them permanent currency in the language. Among these are damsel, raiment, firmament, apparel, quick (in the sense of living), and travail.

While it is true that phrases used with conscious allusion to Scriptural incidents in all European languages, are far more frequent in English than in the language of the Roman Catholic countries, where the Bible is directly familiar only to the learned. We can speak, in English, without fear of not being understood of Gallio like behaviour, a perfect Babel, a painted Jezebel, and a Naboth's vineyard. The Benjamin of the family, the shibboleth of a party, phraisee and publican, the worship of mammon, a leviathan ship, are all expressions which refer to incidents in the Bible and these are easily understood by the speakers of English who know their Bible intimately. Golgotha and prodigal are both current in allusive use, the former meaning the place of skulls, and the latter meaning one who has caused grief to his parents by abandoning his home.

BIBLICAL PHRASES :

Many of the Biblical phrases which are actually literal renderings of Hebrew or Greek expressions have now come to assume the character of native English idioms and are often used without any consciousness of their origin. Among these may be mentioned, "to cast peals before swine", " a labour of love", "a howling wilderness", "the shadow of death" , "the eleventh hour", and "to hope against hope". The mere habit of listening regularly, even in a sleepy mood, to portions of the Bible read out in church every Sunday, has the effect of causing the phraseology and rhythm of its language to become part of one's mental make up. It would then come up quite unsought at all kinds of occasion and one would be surprised to find himself making use of Bible phrases quite naturally. This accounts for the vast influence of the Bible on the prose rhythm and phrasing of English and the many images and verbal echoes which

we come across in current use and which owe their origin to the Bible translation. Both written and spoken English are riddled with phrases, and images, and new formations modelled upon these, which have come from the Authorized Version and its predecessors. When a man says that he is washing his hands of the whole business, he is unconsciously echoing the image which had come into the language of his ancestors through familiarity with Puntius Pilate'a action of washing his hands in public. Again the colloquial expression "gone to Kingdom come" seems to have been suggested by the Lord's prayer. The expression "cared for none of those things" and "common or unclean" are from the Acts of the Apostles. In the Song of Solomon, in The Authorized Version, we come upon two phrases which are now familiar to us as a part of the literary language, though neither of these is recognized even by educated people as coming from the Bible. We read in The Song of Solomon :—"For to, the winter is past, the rain is over and gone, the flower appear on the earth : the time of the singing of birds is come, and the voice of the turtle is heard in our land". The phrase "the rain is over and gone" is used by Wordsworth in "Lines written in March" and "The voice of the Turtle" is the title of a recent American play. But few readers of Wordsworth and few of those who see the American play, would connect either phrase with the Bible.

Like many other books which have been widely popular, the Bible has also given rise to several phrases and use of words through misunderstanding. The modern application of the phrases "to see eye to eye" and "to be of one mind" are not warranted by the original contexts in which they are used in the Bible. Similarly the expression "line of things" in the sense of one's special department of activity or study is based on a misunderstanding of the passage in the Epistle to the Corinthians (2 Cor. x, 16) which reads "And not to boast in another man's line of things made ready to our hand." Such a misunderstanding would not have arisen if commas had been placed immediately after 'boast' and 'line'. Similarly the common saying "He that runs may read" which evidently does not convey a sensible idea, is the result of a misquotation "That he may run that readeth it." In 'helpmate' we have a crowning example of word-making through popular misunderstanding of a Bible passage. In the Bible of 1611 the Hebrew words occurring in the 18th verse of the 2nd chapter of Book of Genesis were literally translated so as to describe Eve as "an help meet (suitable) for him" (Adam). Ignorant readers of the Bible mistook the two words help and meet as comprising a single compound word. Thus help-meet was currently used as a synonym for one's partner in life or what Eve was to Adam. Some people even went to the extent of supposing that helpmeet was one who helped to make both ends meet. But when the word came to be commonly analysed, the second element has been believed to be synonymous with mate, and considered as an incorrect form of it. This

notion led to the 'correcting' of the word into helpmate. But though the word help-mate is thus seen to be the result of a blunder on the part of persons ignorant of the use of the adjective 'meet', it now serves a very useful purpose and is one of those words we can hardly dispense with.

From all that has been said already the tremendous influence of the Bible translations, and particularly that of the Authorized Version of 1611, on the phraseology of English is apparent. The Authorized Version of 1611, on the earlier translations like those of Wyclif, Tyndale and Coverdale, have enriched the English vocabulary with innumerable felicitous words and phrases, either literary translators. Among those works which have contributed in a large measure to making of Modern English, pride of place must be given to the Bible translations beginning with those of Tyndale and Coverdale and culminating in the Authorized Version of 1611.

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Q. 55. Write a short essay on Shakespeare's contribution to the making of English.

Ans. It is a matter of common knowledge that every addition to the expressive capacity of a language must originally have been due to the conscious or involuntary act of some person or other among its users. Though it is not possible to trace the whole history of the Making of English so as to discover the particular circumstances in which each new word has been introduced into the language and the name of the person who introduced it, still we can get some idea of the contributions made to the language by the greatest among the Makers of English. The investigation of the influence which the greatest masters of English literature have had on the language is of double interest. It satisfies our curiosity regarding the Making of English and also enables us to understand the mental capacities of those who have contributed to it. Such an understanding of the mental character of a writer is helpful in appreciating his works better.

TWO WAYS OF CONTRIBUTING :

There are two different ways in which an author can contribute to the enrichment of his own language. First of all he may directly influence the language by the introduction of new words or new uses of existing words. Secondly, he may indirectly help the enticement of the language through the power of his popularity in giving a wider currency and new values to forms of expression already existing in the language. Any obscure or rare word, when used by a popular writer in striking context, will soon pass into the common vocabulary. It will then have a subsequent history & development which would have been impossible if it had been confined to purely literary use. Thus words become specialized or enriched in meaning after they have been popularised by a writer. Also words from an occupational or regional dialect acquire general currency when used in the works of an author who is universally read.

Among the masters of literature who have contributed to the Making of English, the name of Shakespeare is of paramount importance. Just as this master-dramatist is unrivalled in the field of English literature he is without an equal in the extent and profundity of his influence on the English language. The greatness of Shakespeare is based on the fact that he has added to the literary vocabulary innumerable words and felicitous compounds besides providing through his writings multitudes of phrases which have already entered into the texture of the diction of literature and daily conversation.

WIDE SPREAD INFLUENCE

The influence of Shakespeare as a maker of English may well be compared with that of the Bible translations though it is less fundamental and widespread. But there are undoubted colloquial usage and endless literary echoes and poetic assimilations which own their origin to Shakespeare's writings. Many of Shakespeare's words and phrases have become "household words" in English and the very expression 'household words' takes it origin from him. Shakespeare was not merely interested in the English language, but was also very language-conscious. While criticizing and satirizing linguistic and stylistic fashions among his contemporaries Shakespeare was himself making experiments with all kinds of linguistic innovations, dialectal adaptions and archaisms.

DIALECT WORDS :

In making a dramatic use of some of the words from his own Warwickshire dialect, Shakespeare has made certain permanent contributions to the English language. In the tragedy of *Hamlet* we come upon the dialect word 'mobled' in the expression "mobled Queen" which is commented on by Polonius. In *The Taming of the Shrew*, Christopher Sly uses some provinicial words like pheeze (meaning to drive away and thus settle the business of). In *Macbeth* we come upon "Blood-bottered" where 'boltered' seems to be a dialect word of West midland origin. In the play of *Othello* we find a Warwickshire idiom, in "speak within door" (meaning "speak as quietly as possible"). In all the dialect words employed by Shakespeare we find that one which has attained the widest currency, is the West Midland word 'dwindle' occurring in *Macbeth* ("Dwindle, peak and pine" in the sense of 'waste away'). Peak survives in the colloquial adjective 'peeky'.

EXPRESSIONS TAKEN FROM SPOKEN LANGUAGE :

Though Shakespeare has been unrivalled in the vastness and variety of his vocabulary we cannot be sure that all the words which are recorded for the first time in his plays are of his own coinage. Some of his vivid expressions might have been taken from the spoken language of the day and some may have been borrowed from Latin which was known to most people. There are words like control (as a noun), credent, home keeping, illume, lonely, orb, (in the sense of the globe) which are used by Shakespeare and have not yet been found in earlier writers. But as our knowledge of the literature of the Shakespearean age is by no means full or exact we cannot say whether these words have been coined by Shakespeare or lifted out of colloquial speech. Other words used for the first time by him include 'bump', 'castigate' and 'incarnadine'. Of these, 'incardine' is evidently Shakespeare's own coinage being so individual in its context. (No, this my hand will rather the multitudinous seas incarnadine, making the green one red). However, it is because of Shakespeare's using them in his plays that the words mentioned above

have attained wide currency in the language, and in that sense they may be counted among his contributions to the making of English. In all probability, some of the words and phrases transferred by Shakespeare from the spoken language to the written one might not have been preserved. For instance, the survival of the expression "what the dickens" is the result of Shakespeare's using it in a speech of Mrs. Page in "The Merry Wives of Windsor"

TELLING WORDS AND PHRASES :

It is in the multitude of phrases coined by Shakespeare and in imitations or misunderstandings of them that his language continues to live even today. Shakespeare's greatest contribution to the language lies in these picturesque and telling words and phrases which have literally passed into 'household words'. Many people using the expression "past praying for" do not realise that it is a phrase first used by Falstaff in *Henry IV.* Similarly when we speak of a person that "nothing in his life became him like the leaving it" we may not be aware of the fact that we are making a quotation from *Macbeth*. "Like patience on a monument" is an expression first used by Viola in *Twelfth Night* to describe how a girl pined away on account of her unrevealed love. The play *Hamlet* is perhaps the most abounding in well-used phrases of Shakespeare, which are on the lips of many who have never read a line of his writing. Among these are "To the manner born", "Hoist with his own petard", (meaning caught in one's own trap), "To be or not to be", and "caviare to the general" (where the word general means the common multitude). The play is so full of expressions, which have now become part of the machinery of literature and journalism that a collection of these including "too solid flesh", "Stale, flat, and unprofitable", "mind's eye", "more, in sorrow than in anger", "the primrose path", "rich, not gaudy", "with all my imperfections on my head", "still harping on", "the slings and arrows of outrageous fortunate", "there's the rub", "this martal coil", "the undiscovered country", "the observed of all observers", "to hold the mirror up to nature", "very like a whale", "to speak daggers", "a king of shreds and patches", "cruel, only to be kind", "to cudgel one's brains", "chapfallen", ministering angel", "sweets to the sweet", "towering passion", and "a very palpable hit,' when read out will sound like a recitation of cliches. Other oft-repeated expressions from Shakespeare's plays include "to wear one's heart upon one's sleeve", "one's pound of flesh", "Sir Oracle", "to gild refined gold", "a tower of strength", "full of sound and fury", "tale told by an idiot", "life's fitful fever", "too full of the milk of human kindness", "the seeds of time", "A Daniel came to judgement", "yeoman's service", "curled darlings", "moving accident", "summer-seeming lust", "the guest of summer", "coign of vantage", "the sere and yellow leaf", "men in buckram", "metal more attractive" and "a Triton among the minnows".

NEW COMPOUNDS :

It is in the making of new and daring compounds and in the liberties which he takes in using one part of speech for another that Shakespeare has made his most original contribution to the language. With the help of the French prefixes like 'em' and 'en' he has coined a whole host of new words like enact, enchafed, enchased, endeared, engird, engirt, enkindle, enlink, enmesh, enrooted, ensky, entame and embattle, embayed, empson, etc. He has made daring and poetic compounds out of two adjectives like daring-hardy, happy, valiant, etc. Adjectives like 'happy' and 'safe' have been used as verbs to convey the idea of "to make safe." Nouns have been converted into verbs so that spaniel'd is used in the sense of "followed like a spaniel". "Childed" and "fathered", both are used in *King Lear*. With the help of the prefix 'un' Shakespeare has coined unavoided (inevitable), unvalued, (precious), uncharge (acquit), un-expressive (inexpressible) unfellowed (without an equal), ungot (unborn), unroosted (ousted from one's place) and also, uncoted, unkiss, unhair etc. One of Shakespeare's daring usages "to out Herod Herod" has not only become current in its original form, but has also served as the model for a large number of expressions like "to out Milton Milton", "to out Darwin -Darwin" etc. Shakespeare was fond of coining compound words in which 'out' has been used in the sense of 'surpass'. Almost all the words in the language which have been compounded of 'out' and some verbs (like outnumber, outlive etc.) seem to have been coined by him or formed of his usage.

It is interesting to note that some of the phrases used by Shakespeare have remained in currency with a meaning different from what the dramatist had intended. The most startling change of meaning has been undergone by "a foregone conclusion" which was originally used in *Othello* in the sense of "an experience previously undergone", as 'conclusion' was then generally used in the sense of experience. Another phrase which had occurred originally in *Hamlet* is "more honoured in the breach than the observance." As employed by Hamlet it had referred to the Danish custom of heavy drinking. Hamlet had meant that the custom would be more honourably broken than observed. We know that this is not the sense in which this oft-quoted phrase is now used. According to Ernest Weekly, Shakespeare's contribution to English phraseology is ten times greater than that of any writer to any language in the history of the world. There is an interesting story about a millionaire, who having turned to literary studies late in life, criticised *Hamlet* as nothing but "a string of popular sayings".

The freedom of the individual suggested by the Renaissance had found expression in the Elizabethan and Jacobean English which is characterised by a remarkable increase of flexibility in its grammatical usages. During this period new collection of words where nouns or

adjectives could perform the functions of verbs came into use. This has made some students of the literature of the period to arrive at the conclusion that the English used by Shakespeare and his contemporaries had no grammar at all. The truth is that the Elizabethans, with Shakespeare at their head, were able to interchange the functions of noun, adjective, and verb in a way which was more logical than grammatical. This was quite easily done because the loss of Old English inflexions had done away with the morphological differences. Shakespeare was the writer who made use of this flexibility to the utmost. Since Shakespeare was the first great writer of the widest interest and influence after the disappearance of the Old English inflexions, his practice of varying the grammatical functions, of verbs with the greatest flexibility has had its effect in encouraging the greater enfranchisement of the language during the modern period. Thus Shakespeare's influence on the vocabulary and grammatical usage of English has been unrivalled.

Q. 56. Give an account of the contributions made by Chaucer, Spenser, Milton, Pope and Wordsworth to the making of English.

Ans.

CHAUCER :

Chaucer has aptly been described as the "first illuminer" of the English tongue, "the well of English undefiled", offering inspiration to the innumberable English poets who came after him. Though there can be no doubt that his writings had a very great influence on the English language, as he happened to be the first truly national poet in English, there is now no means of proving definitely the extent of his influence on the making of English. It is by no means difficult to make a list of the words and expressions which are evidently recorded for the first time in Chaucer's works. But we cannot rest assured that these words have not been used either by contemporaries of Chaucer or earlier writers, because our knowledge of the literature of the period is very, very imperfect. We can be almost certain that a large proportion of these words evidently occurring for the first time in literary use in his works, if not invented by him, have at least been given wide currency by his use of them. A poet of Chaucer's calibre, having so much to say, and so eagerly seeking fulness of expression must certainly have availed himself of all the resources which his knowledge of foreign language could supply for the enrichment of his native language. It is equally possible that he must find new and felicitous applications for words which were already current in the spoken language of the time. But because of our imperfect knowledge of the literature of the time we cannot be quite sure that in the use of one particular word or other he had no English model before him. Since all later poets have been indebted to Chaucer for much of their poetic vocabulary we can safely assert that the father of English

poetry was responsible for giving literary currency to many words in the English poetic vocabulary. But unfortunately we cannot point out particular instances of his contributions to the making of English, in the way in which scores of words and phrases can be said to have been contributed by Shakespeare or the translators of the Bible. The single phrase which is associated in the popular mind, with the name of Chaucer, is the one describing the French spoken by his Lady Prioress. It was French "after the Scole of Stratford-atte-Bowe". On the whole, the share of Chaucer in the making of Modern English has to be summed up with the remark that it does not ādmit of any detailed illustration because of our imperfect knowledge of the literature of the time.

SPENSER :

Spenser's influence on the English language is the more easy to trace than that of Chaucer whom he reverently acknowledged as his master. With Spenser, the poets' poet, begins the division of the language into literary and colloquial, each of which, of course, has several subdivisions and gradations. While Chaucer had contented himself with writing in the ordinary language of his own time and never consciously invented a poetic diction, Spenser deliberately framed for his own use a kind of artificial dialect. The words and forms of his poetic diction were partly drawn from the language of an older generation. But Jonson was in a sense correct when he remarked that "Spenser writ no language" because the artificial dialect of his poetry was not a form of language actually spoken by any one at any time. However, it was no mere affectation or fondness for the use of philosophical novelties that made the poet choose a kind of pseudo archaic language for his poetry. He chose this artificial dialect because it was the only suitable medium for expressing his peculiar tone of thought and feeling. Though a large number of the words which he invented or revived, have already become obsolete, the literary vocabulary of English still retains some traces of his influence. We owe to him the word braggadocio which is the name of the vainglorious knight of the *Faerie Queene*. The phrase "squire of dames" also occurs in the same work though most users of the expression now have no idea of its source. The adjective blatant is first recorded in Spenser and as it has not been traced to any other source, is believed to be his coinage. Another word which has in all probability been invented by the poet is 'elfin'. The compound word 'derring do', which Scott borrowed from Spenser and popularised, is a favourite word of modern chilvalric romance. The word seems to have originated from a passage where Chaucer describes Troilus as second to no man in "derring do" (that is in daring to do) "that longeth to a knight." When the passage was paraphrased by Lydgate and printed in his 'Troy-book' the word was wrongly printed as derrynge. Spenser naturally believed that derrynge do was a noun meaning something like "manhood and chivalary". His blunder has resulted in the enriching of the English vocabulary by a happily expressive word. From Lydgate Spenser borrowed another word,

'gride', which was probably a clerical error for 'girde', which meant 'to smite'. In imitation of Spenser many later poets have used this word, particularly because its sound has in it something which suggests the passing of a cutting weapon through flesh and bones. Both Shelley and Tennyson have used the word to convey the idea of harsh and grating movement.

Through his *Faerie Queene*, Spenser provided the language romantic English poetry for later poets to draw upon or imitate. The Old French word 'faerie' meaning 'enchantment' or 'land of enchantment' had first appeared in a Middle English romance called 'Sir Orfeo' in which Orpheus is represented as bringing back his wife Erydice from the "land of faerie" which was a mixture of the Celtic fairyland and the classical Hades. Spenser adopted this phrase "land of faerie" for his own poem and embellished it with all kinds of romantic suggestions that it has become through Spenser's use a especially productive word with so much of romantic association. It is now quite distinct in meaning from the more ordinary word fairy, which has also been derived from the same origin. Spenser may be looked upon as a working critic of the language, whose efforts in the production of a poetic diction were to a great influence upon all succeeding poets.

JOHN MILTON :

Coming to John Milton, we find that we have to deal with a poet who enjoys an outstanding position in English literature as the moulder and exemplar of English poetic diction. In addition to this, Milton is of interest to the student of the history of the language in three different ways. First of all, he had certain ideas on spelling and he experimented with these in his poetry. Secondly, he was a keen student of the English language and one of the best practitioners of it. Thirdly, he has contributed a large number of words, mostly of learned or poetic nature to the literary vocabulary of English, though not to the spoken one.

Milton was probably the last great poet who deliberately composed his verses to be read aloud, rather than merely read through. He was particularly conscious of emphasis on pronunciation when dictating his verses to be taken down for the printer. Though he was not a 'spelling-reformer' in the ordinary sense, he was keenly interested in spelling in his later life, for aesthetic reasons. The manuscript of the Book I of *Paradise Lost* prepared under his dictation shows that he tried to indicate a distinction in spelling between the stressed and unstressed forms of the personal pronouns such as me, he, she and their writing mee, hee, shee and their for the emphatic forms and me, he she and their for the unemphatic. Milton took particular care to ensure that those who read his verses aloud should be able to distinguish by the spelling whether the ending of weak past participles in -d was to be pronounced as a separate syllable -ed or not. He also wrote a (t) at the end of such words when it was suggested by the pronunciation in 'walket' for walked. In

the case of words where contemporary habits left a choice of spelling to the writer, Milton chose what approximated most to a phonetic spelling in words which he had noticed as being likely to be mispronounced. Thus he wrote sovran for sovereign, artic for arctic and iland for island. The poet showed his sensitiveness to pronunciation and interest in phonetics by distinguishing between the syllabic -n and the sound of n when preceded by a vowel sound. In words like forbidden, heaven etc. he left out the 'e' before the -n inserting instead an apostrophe to show the syllabic nature of the consonant. Though these spelling devices used by Milton to indicate accurately the pronunciation of English words have not been followed by later writers, except Robert Bridges, they are of interest to students of language in ascertaining the pronunciations of words which have been rhymed together by an exact rhymer like this poet.

In an age of Latin scholars in the midst of the Latin discipline of Cambridge, Milton was preoccupied with the possibilities of his native language. He proclaimed proudly that his own language had potentially all the qualities needed for the highest poetic composition. He was thereafter engaged in studying to make himself a master of the language so that he could exploit to the full its utmost capacities. He showed himself as a critic of the linguistic usages of his contemporary writers "the late fantasticks." His poems as well as his prose pamphlets contain occasional critical utterances on questions of language. Though his insistence on "fit quantity of syllables" in verse indicates a confusion between stress and quantity, it shows one aspect of a keen linguistic conscience.

Many people have objected to the language of Milton as being too Latinate. But what appears to us as the supposed Latinizing in his vocabulary was merely the deliberate use for poetic effect, of words of learned origin, which though now obsolete, were easily understood by the educated contemporaries of the poet. In the matter of syntax too Milton was closely influenced by the models of Latin prose then familiar to all educated people. This syntax is not fully intelligible to any one who is not conversant with the Latin constructions which he has reproduced in English. But his Latin syntax which now puzzles us, would have appeared quite natural and appropriate to his contemporaries in the learned seventeenth century. What is important for us is that next to Shakespeare Milton was the greatest master in English poetic language who contributed in great measure to the making of poetic English to suit his 'grand' style.

In addition to being a master and a model in the making of poetic diction he has also made valuable contributions to the expressive capacity of English. He was the inventor of the word 'pandemonium' now familiarly used to designate any "hell of a row". He was also the maker of many phrases, especially in "Paradise Lost" and the twin pieces, *L'*

Allegro and *Il Penseroso*, which having been taken out of their contexts have now become familiar to us in all kinds of extended uses. From *Paradise Lost* we have such oft-quoted phrases as "precious dane" (gold), "the secret conclave," "the Gorgeous East," "From noon to dewy eve," "to prove a bitter morsel," "confusion worse confounded," "hide their diminished head," "a heaven on earth", "wild work in heaven", "to save appearances", "a pillar of state" and "bad eminence." From his other works we have memorable expressions like "laughter holding both his sides," "tomorrow to fresh woods and pastures new," "where more is meant than meets the ear," "the light fantastic toe" "the dappled dawn," and "calm of mind, all passion spent."

In Milton's poems we occasionally come across archaisms and dialect words, which by his use of them, have acquired permanent poetic currency. His early poems show the influence of the kind of archaisms used in Spenser's *Faerie Queene*. He has made use of provincial term 'charm' for the song of birds with magical effect in suggesting rusticity after having tried out the word in the poem, *Il Penseroso* where he sings of "the Belman's drowsie charm". In *Lycidas* he has made use of Lincolnshire word of Norse origin (scrannel) to suggest a harsh and thin sound as in

And when they list, their lean flashy songs
Grate on their scrannel Pipes of wretched straw

He has also made use of gardening term 'rathe', meaning quickly maturing, in the line

Bring the rathe Primrose that forsaken dies.

In his poem *Comus* he has brought into use the West-country term "dingle", which had been used only by Drayton, except in place names, since the 13th century.

Because of the multitute of Latin and occasional Greek constructions and words Milton indulged in, the influence of the Bible and Shakespeare on his language has been greatly obscured. He did not coin new words except for 'pandemonium' and 'anarch'. But he had a peculiar knack of deliberately using simple words for special effect in the midst of his rhythmic Latinic diction. He was equally at home in the plainest English diction and the grand poetic style designed for the sublime theme of *Paradise Lost*. Like the translators of the Bible and the master-dramatist Shakespeare, the master poet, Milton, has enriched the English language with innumerable telling phrases and beautiful poetic expressions which are often used by those who have never read a single line of his poetry.

POPE :

Of the English poets other than Shakespeare and Milton, Pope and Wordsworth have been the most influential on the language as a whole. Pope is the poet, who more than anything else, has given us, in memorable words, the kind of language which is

Nature to advantage drest,
What oft was thought, but ne'er so well expressed.

He has expressed obvious truths in apt and telling phrases which have passed into the language of the common man. Among these are the expressions "A little learning is a dangerous thing", "Hope springs eternal in the human breast", and "Damn with faint praise". Pope has a genius for the "most just", for the commonly acceptable idea. His influence on later poets has been very great. His idea of aiming at correctness in poetic language has had a disciplining effect on later poets. He is now remembered mostly on account of the neatly turned out phrases and lines which are easily retained in memory and are often quoted even by people who are not familiar with his poetry.

WORDSWORTH :

Wordsworth who inaugurated the Romantic Revival in English poetry looked upon himself as a pioneer in writing poetry in "a selection of language really used by men". It was his view that there is no essential difference between the language of prose and that of metrical composition. In holding such a view he considered himself as following the tradition of familiar language in which poets like Chaucer had excelled. Shocked by the "false poetic diction" of the eighteenth century, Wordsworth tried to preach and follow in practice in early life his theory that the difference between the language of prose and poetry is unessential. He further believed that in the language of rustics was to be found the right medium for poetry. Though he himself was steeped in the deepest influences from Shakespeare and Milton, he did not realise the value of poetic tradition. He could write simply and well when the situation and context favoured this as in his poem *Michael*. He wrote badly, with an unnatural and conscious simplicity when thinking of his theories of diction. In his best work he is evidently following the tradition of the best poets who have written before him, inspite of all his assertions to the contrary. This is evident from the style of language used in poems like the one on Lucy Gray, in the lines "Roll'd round in earth's diurnal course/ With rocks and stones and trees."

We find here an unconscious echo of Milton's tone in *Paradise Lost*. Some of Wordsworth's memorable phrases, which owe nothing to theory of poetry, have remained in the literary language and some have even penetrated into popular use. Among these may be mentioned "the still sad music of humanity", "thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears", "that inward eye which is the bliss of solitude", "old, unhappy, far off things and battles long ago", "child is father of man" etc. All these go to prove that Wordsworth was at his best in making his contribution to the language while following in the steps of the best poets who wrote before him and utilising the instinct produced by that training in diction.

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Q. 57. Write a short essay on Basic English.

Ans. Basic English, like Esperanto, which has been invented by Dr. Zamenh to serve as an international language, is an artificial language, constructed on 'a priori' principles. Mr. Ogden's aim in designing this artificial language has been to provide an international auxiliary language in science, commerce and travel for all those who do not already have command of an international language like English. The author of Basic English also had the good intention of promoting the use of the living English speech through the popularisation for an artificial language like Basic English which has been formed out of it. But in speaking about Basic English we have to remember the fact that it is not a merely simplified form of English, but is, on the other hand, a true artificial language which owes its construction to certain preconceived notions of what speech should be, from the point of view of grammatical structure and vocabulary.

SIMILARITY BETWEEN BASIC AND REAL ENGLISH :

All the words in Basic English being taken from English, there is no apparent difference between a passage of Basic and a passage of natural English, as far as the vocabulary is concerned. The spelling, pronunciation and inflexional endings remain the same in both forms of English.But a close study of those books which have been written in basic English, will immediately show us the radical differences between Basic and natural forms of English. First of all, we will come to realise that the name Basic English is something of a misnomer, since what we have in Basic is not natural English reduced to its basic or fundamental elements. The vocabulary of Basic is not merely a contraction of the vast vocabulary of natural English. It has been selected in a highly artificial manner from the word-stock of Standard English. The structure of English language has also been fundamentally altered in Basic.

GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE IN BASIC :

An essential feature of the grammatical structure of English is the power to use the same word to function as different parts of speech. For example, the same word 'spring' is used as a verb, a noun or an adjective in different contexts, as when we speak of springing a surprise on somebody, or of the season of spring or of gay spring fashions. The use of the same word as different parts of speech has been severely restricted in Basic English. The clever contriver of Basic has thought fit to abolish the verbal functions of a large number of English words and has confined them to their other functions. By thus going against the natural tendency

of a non-inflectional language like Modern English, Mr. Ogden has succeeded in thrusting out a large number of anomalous verbs besides reducing the size of the vocabulary. We don't say in Basic "I pushed". We can only say "I gave him a push" though in natural English, the word push is used as a verb, a noun and an adjective. Because of the drastic elimination of the verbal functions of many words in Basic, only eighteen verbs have been able to survive in it. All the ideas which are conveyed by the other verbs existing in natural English, are expressed in Basic noun to convey the idea of different actions. In other words, we have in Basic, eighteen periphrastic conjugations in place of the innumerable vertal conjugations of natural English. In this respect Basic may be compared with Basque where instead of saying "I see it", one could say "I have it in sight."

LIMITED VOCABULARY OF BASIC :

The vocabulary of Basic has been made up in the following manner : six hundred meaning words (nouns), one hundred and fifty qualifying words (adjectives), eighteen names of actions and states (verbs) and nearly eighty other unimportant but very necessary words like 'and', though, etc. (particles). (See Appendix 'B' for a list of words included in Basic English.) This shows how ruthlessly the inventor of Basic has cut down the noble vocabulary of living English. According to J.H. Jaggar this is like reducing to a mere pittance the vast capital which has been amassed during ages of thought and work by the philosophers, statesmen, poets, merchants and laymen who have enriched the English vocabulary. According to the inventor of Basic the 850 words of its vocabulary, when combined with international words like Sir, theatre and tea as well as the names of numerals, coins, days of the week and months of the year and measurements, provide all the material needed for the purposes of ordinary human intercourse. This word-stock can be further supplemented by an average of 150 occupational words contributed by each speaker and made to serve as a means of communicating all kinds of ideas. A Basic word retains the meaning it has in natural English and can serve as an element in any new compound which is to be made out of the 850 words of the vocabulary. A compound like mankind can easily be coined because the two elements, man and kind are already there.

It would appear rather curious that the 850 survivors of the general slaughter of English words by Mr. Ogden are not the words most often used. On the most reliable authority available, only 454 of the 850 commonest words in English are to be met with in the vocabulary of Basic. About 396 of the 850 Basic words fall outside the range of the 80 commonest words occurring in the written English of today. Conditions are not much different in spoken English too. This has come about as a result of the philosophical principles which Mr. Odgen has laid down for the selection of the vocabulary of Basic.

LIMITATIONS OF EXPRESSION IN BASIC :

The fact that Basic is not merely a simplified form of English in which

the natural structure of English is pruned and not manipulated in any other way, is proved by looking at a few specimens of Basic English usage. There is in the vocabulary of Basic, no distinction between man and husband or between woman and wife. Words like uncle, aunt, nephew, and niece do not exist, though son and daughter are present in its vocabulary. Names of parts of the body like forehead, eyebrow, cheek, shoulder, joint, wrist, vein, lung, hip, thigh, ankle etc. are not included. Instead of saying "He hurt his forehead", one has to say in Basic, "He did damage to the front of his head". Similarly, instead of saying "she raised her eyebrows", one should say in Basic, "she put up the arch of hair over her eyes." "He sprained his shoulder" will be rendered into "He twisted the joint of the top of his arm" in Basic English. These expressions are all indicative of the limitations of the vocabulary of Basic, the artificiality of the selection of words in it, and the practical abolition of the verb. It is also seen that Basic is less precise and exact in its expressions than natural English. The idea expressed by the sentence "He has sprained his wrist" is not so clearly expressed by the statement, "He has twisted the joint of his hand and arm". "The top of the arm" is not as precise an expression as the "shoulder" just as "the front of the head" is not exactly the same as "the forehead".

BASIC MORE DIFFUSE THAN REAL ENGLISH :

Basic, which constantly has to employ periphrastic expressions, is necessarily more diffuse than natural English which replaces them by single words. Because of its round-about way of expressing ideas, Basic can never be as brief and concise as real English. J. H. Jaggar, compares two paragraphs of natural English with their counterparts in Basic English and points out how the Basic English version contains twenty-eight percent more of words than the real English version. It is also seen that the Basic translation of any book in real English is generally twenty eight percent longer than the original. The brevity of real English which is one of its principal beauties, is absent from Basic English.

Mr. Ogden was of the view that the foreign speaker of English would be overwhelmed by the size of the English vocabulary and that there was no need for him to know the whole of it. But when the vocabulary of English has been reduced to a number of words much smaller than are needed for ordinary intercourse, the deficiency has to be supplied by making periphrastic expressions as Basic. Thus instead of remembering a large number of words one is to make use of his intellect in making 850 Basic words to do the work of the vast number of words in real English. Because of this characteristic, Basic has been compared to a heavy bow which Achilles can wield effectively, while a child cannot even lift it. Anyone who makes experiments in communicating his ideas with the help of less than 2000 words, will find it a very taxing business. How much more taxing it is to convey one's ideas with the help of the severely limited vocabulary of Basic, containing no more than 850 words.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN BASIC AND REAL ENGLISH

Between Basic English and natural English we find all the striking and radical differences which exist between real and artificial languages. While Basic has been invented by an individual, natural English has been the creation of a nation. Basic being an artificial language, is based on definite principles. English being a natural speech has not been made by any conscious application of principles. Between Basic and real English we find all difference between a manufactured article and a natural growth. Basic which is a speech-substitute, is not the same as real speech. Another difference between Basic and real English is that the former is entirely logical, while the latter like all real speech, is comprised of rational and irrational elements. Basic, being an artificial language, is logical and therefore, easier to learn, than real English which being illogical and irregular, is difficult to learn.

However it is the irregularity of natural English which makes it more satisfying to our nature than Basic English which is entirely logical and regular. In its regularity and logical nature, Basic English has been compared to an orderly and cultivated park which is considered less attractive and enchanting than the woods and the mountains. Again we find that in all artificial languages, including Basic English, words are like mathematical symbols, mutually exclusive and unchanging in meaning. The absence of idiom and isolation of meaning are two features which make Basic easier to learn than real English.

MERITS AND DEMERITS OF BASIC :

An artificial language like Basic, being constructed on rational principles, is most appropriately used in the unemotional fields of prosaic narrative, bald description and abstract exposition. It is quite unsuitable for original and creative literature of any kind. As words are used in creative literature for their emotional and suggestive value as well as their meaning. Basic which ignores the emotional and suggestive qualities of words is not suited for literary use. With all these limitations imposed by its artificial nature Basic English admittedly serves a useful purpose. As a means of international communication it has met with greater success than any other artificial language. It is studied in the East and the West. It has been taught in China and Japan, and has been employed in the instruction of recruits of the Indian army. However, Basic English owes its success primarily to the fact that it is tacked onto real English the mastery of which is desired by many who do not speak it. The nature of Basic is such that it is easily understood by any man speaking real English. The writing of Basic English is also comparatively easy, since the writer can pause and select the necessary words. But Basic speech in more difficult because the speaker has to employ constant watchfulness in seeing that the bounds of Basic vocabulary are not overstepped. He will constantly have the feeling of a man going up the stairs in the dark, groping for the steps he has to climb one by one.

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Q. 58. Consider English as a universal language.

Ans.

ENGLISH AS UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE :

Mr. H.G. Wells in his book "The World Set Free" endows his Utopia with a universal English which has been shorn of a number of grammatical peculiarities, and has its spelling systematized, besides having commenced a process of incorporating foreign nouns and verbs which speedily reached enormous proportions. Before accepting Mr. Well's idea that English may easily become the universal language of international communication we have to stop and consider how far it is better suited than other languages to become a universal language. We have to consider the special merits which this language has for being accepted as a world language for international communication. We have also to analyse the defects of English which might stand in the way of its becoming a universal language acceptable to all the people of the world.

That there is an urgent need for an international language to serve as the common medium for political, historical and scientific thought for the peoples of the world besides meeting the need of travel and commerce, no one will deny. Many attempts have already been made to supply this need artificially. Artificially constructed languages have been offered for the purpose of meeting the demands of trade and travel on the international level. The best examples of these are found in Esperanto and Basic English. The latter is also an artificial language devised according to certain set principles from the vocabulary of standard English and made to follow its own artificial rules of usage. As none of the artificial languages has been quite satisfactory as a universal language, many people all over the world may be willing to choose one of the well known and widely used languages of the world as a universal language.

ENGLISH A WIDELY USED LANGUAGE :

So we have to compare the English language with other widely spoken languages of the world and see what chances it has of evolving the world language in the future. Considered on the basis of the number of people who speak it, it is second only to Chinese. It has that advantage of being the language of the most powerful and progressive countries in the world. As the nations speaking English enjoy the blessings of political, cultural, technological, commercial and material progress, their language is

already well-suited for conveying ideas of every kind and reflects the progress they have made in every field of human activity. English has also the great advantages of being a language which is not very difficult for foreigners to master. On these accounts philologists like Zachrisson and writers like Galsworthy have favoured it as the language of international communication.

OTHER LANGUAGES TO RIVAL IT :

But here we have to consider the chances which other major languages of the world today have of competing with English in this field and of coming out victorious in the competition. To begin with, there is Chinese, which at present is spoken by the largest number of people in the world. Even if English were to displace its rivals among the European languages, including Russian, it will still have to face a formidable rival in Chinese. We cannot be sure that united, industrialized China will not try to impose her language on the rest of the world if she can manage to do so. So may a victorious Soviet block have a chance, in the future, to impose the Russian language on the rest of the world, just as a British-American combination may have a chance of imposing the English language on the other peoples of the world. It is equally possible that anyone of the half a dozen other major languages in the world may have a chance of being elevated to the position of a world language. Considering all these facts, we cannot say that there is any certainty of English becoming a language of greater international significance than it is at present.

OBSTACLES IN THE WAY OF ENGLISH :

As for the possibility of English becoming "in a natural unforced way, the single inter-communicating tongue" in the world, we must admit that there are two main obstacles to this. One is the vast and varied vocabulary of English, which is not easy to master in a short time by any foreigner. The other is a very unphonetic and illogical spelling of English which is more difficult to master than its complex vocabulary. It is on account of these things that H.G. Wells imagined English becoming the language of his Utopia after being shorn of its grammatical peculiarities and having had its spelling systematized and improved.

INVENTION OF 'ANGLIC'

Already two attempts have been made by two different scholars to make English have a wider universal appeal. In the early part of the 20th century, the Swedish scholar and philologist, R. E. Zachrisson, invented a simplified form of the English spelling known as Anglic for the use of foreign students newly learning the language. Here the illogical English spelling has been improved by being made more phonetic and less irrational. Zachrisson has taken care not to have in Anglic too many departures from the traditional English spelling which has been reserved for the native speakers of the language. This simplified spelling which has done away with most of the irrational features of the traditional

English spelling, has been devised by Professor Zachrisson in order to help English become a universal second language which all the peoples of the world may master for international communication. But many lovers of the language have objected to any kind of interference with the traditional orthography of English. According to them the traditional spelling is to be retained and studied, even by foreign students of English, for its etymological value.

BASIC ENGLISH :

In what is now known as Basic English, its inventor Mr. Ogden has curtailed the noble vocabulary of English, reducing it to about 850 words in all. The author of Basic believes that these eight hundred and fifty English words together with other international words like the names of numerals, coins, measurements, days of the week and months of the year provide all the material that is needed for ordinary communication, with our fellowmen. The Basic words retain the meaning which they have in natural English and compound words may be made up of any words occurring in the limited vocabulary of Basic. The limitation of vocabulary, the practical abolition of the verb (there are only 18 verbs in Basic) and the artificiality in the selection of words have imposed upon Basic certain peculiarities of usage. For instance instead of saying "She raised her eye-brows" Basic English can only say "She put up the arch of hair over her eyes." Such paraphrases are naturally more diffuse than the single terms which they replace. Since the vocabulary of Basic has been so drastically cut down as to make it inadequate for proper or natural communication of ideas, the deficiency has to be supplied by making phrases like "having a thing in sight" instead of "seeing it".

As Basic offers a means of international communication it has been more successful than any other artificial language. Any foreign student who has studied Basic English will be surprised to find that he has to modify the notions of structure which he has already acquired, when he passes on to real English. Even so, English is studied in various European countries, and with greater enthusiasm, in the East. In China and Japan successful experiments in the teaching of Basic have been made. It has also been employed successfully in the instructions of recruits for the Indian army. However, great as are the intrinsic merits of Basic, it owes its success primarily to the fact that it is tacked on the real English, which many who do know it, have a desire or need to speak.

Confined to its proper purposes, Basic can certainly perform a useful function in promoting the expansion of real English and raising it to the level of a universal speech. This has been one of the objects which Mr. Ogden had in inventing this simplified form of English which could be more easily studied by foreign speakers and mastered in a short time.

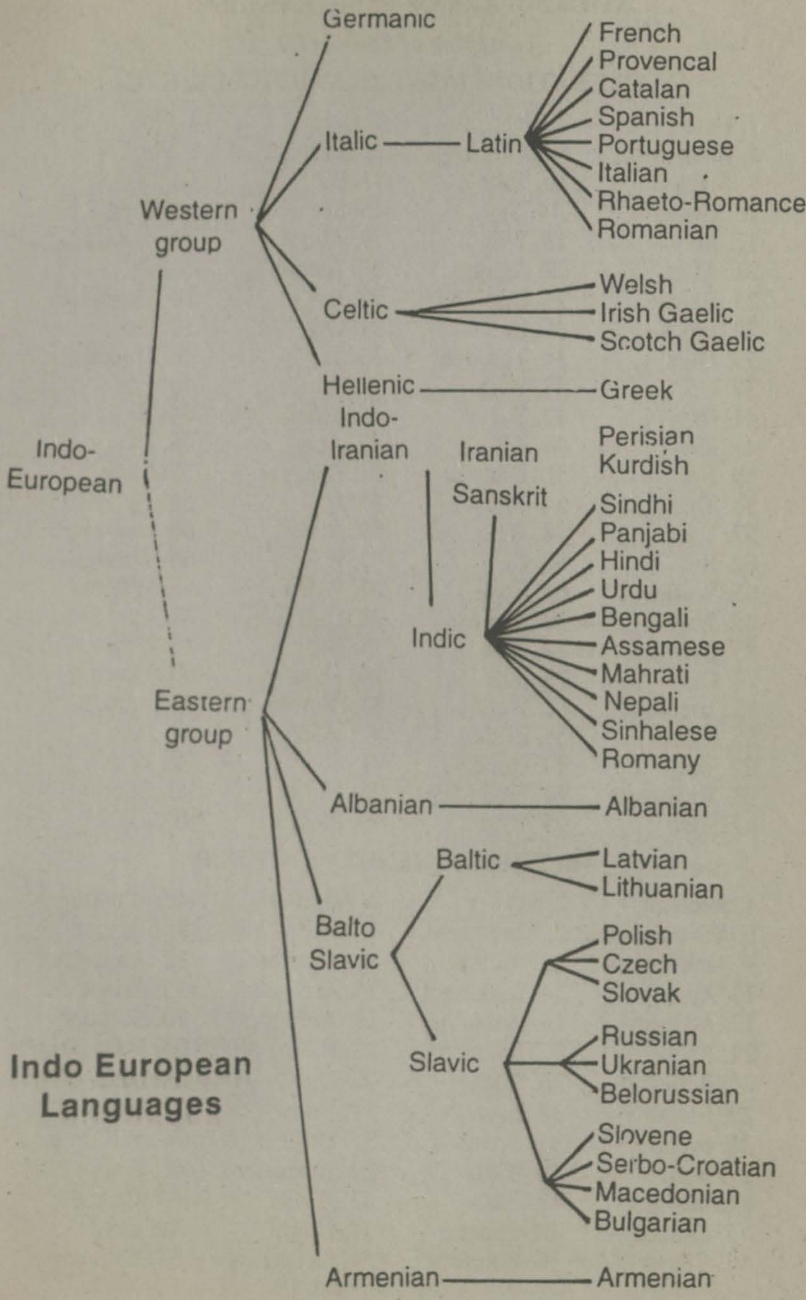
Jacob Grimm, the founder of scientific philology, living the urban days before the fierce passions and rivalries of modern nationalism and

power blocks had been aroused, had believed that English was supreme among modern tongues in richness, sound, reason and flexibility. On account of these intrinsic qualities he considered English to be having the greatest chance of becoming universal among mankind. Many people have wanted to learn English for the reason that it is the most popular language in the world and is spoken by the peoples of two-thirds of the world. Who will speak English in the future, and what form it will take in their mouth, are questions of interest to all lovers of the language. In the opinion of people like Mr. Basil de Selincourt, as expressed in *Pomona, or the Future of English,* a ....horror fills the mind of the humanist when it occurs to him that English may be destined to be the language of the human race.....In plain truth, it is already spoken too generally for its good, and......its expansion may yet prove its undoing". These views have been opposed by Professor J. Y. T. Greig in a pamphlet entitled "Breaking Priscian's Head, English as she will be spoke and wrote". According to him no conscious effort by Englishmen will save English as a whole unless Scotsmen, Irishmen, Welshmen, Englishmen who reject the public school standard, Canadians, Australians, South Africans, and New-Zealanders may come to an agreement with Americans that the English language shall be maintained as an organic whole despite dialectical differences; and that it shall be helped everywhere to develop in accordance with the natural laws of human speech in general, and the peculiar habits and whigmaleories of English speech in particular.

In all our speculations on the future position of English, the expansion that has occurred during the last hundred years has to be taken into account. However, an alteration in the political relations of the English speaking people with each other and to the other peoples of the world, can effect the position that English speech is likely to occupy in the future among the people of the world, though the chances are now in favour of English to a very great extent.

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Appendix 'A'


Germanic
Italic
Latin
French
Provencal
Catalan
Spanish
Portuguese
Italian
Rhaeto-Romance
Romanian
Western group
Celtic
Welsh
Irish Gaelic
Scotch Gaelic
Hellenic
Greek
Indo-European
Indo-Iranian
Iranian
Perisian
Kurdish
Sanskrit
Indic
Sindhi
Panjabi
Hindi
Urdu
Bengali
Assamese
Mahrati
Nepali
Sinhalese
Romany
Eastern group
Albanian
Albanian
Baltic
Latvian
Lithuanian
Balto Slavic
Slavic
Polish
Czech
Slovak
Russian
Ukranian
Belorussian
Slovene
Serbo-Croatian
Macedonian
Bulgarian
Armenian
Armenian
Indo European Languages

Appendix 'B'

VOCABULARY OF BASIC ENGLISH

(consisting of 850 words)

(A) OPERATIONS (ADVERB, PARTICLES, ETC.)

1. Come	2. Get	3. Give	4. Go
5. Keep	6. Let	7. Make	8. Put
9. Seem	10. Take	11. Be	12. Do
13. Have	.14. Say	15. See	16. Send
17. May	18. Will	19. About	20. Across
21. After	22. Against	23. Among	24. At
25. Before	26. Between	27. By	28. Down
29. From	30. In	31. Off	32. On
33. Over	34. Through	35. To	36. Under
37. Up	38. With	39. As	40. For
41. Of	42. Till	43. Than	44. A
45. The	46. All	47. Any	48. Every
49. No	50. Other	51. Some	52. Such
53. That	54. This	55. I	56. He
57. You	58. Who	59. And	60. Because
61. But	62. Or	63. If	64. Though
65. While	66. How	67. When	68. Where
69. Why	70. Again	71. Ever	72. Far
73. Forward	74. Here	75. Near	76. Now
77. Out	78. Still	79. Then	80. There
81. Together	82. Well	83. Almost	84.Enough
85. Even	86. Little	87. Much	88. Not
89. Only	90. Quite	91. So	92. Very
93. Tomorrow	94. Yesterday	95. North	96. South
97. East	98. West	99. Please	100. Yes.

(B) THINGS (GENERAL NOUNS)

1. Account	2. Act	3. Addition	4. Adjustment
5. Advertisement	6. Agreement	7. Air	8. Amount
9. Amusement	10. Animal	11. Answer	12. Apparatus
13. Approval	14. Argument	15. Art	16. Attack
17. Attempt	18. Attention	19. Attraction	20. Authority
21. Back	22. Balance	23. Base	24. Behaviour
25. Belief	26. Birth	27. Bit	28. Bite
29. Blood	30. Blow	31. Body	32. Brass
33. Bread	34. Breath	35. Brother	36. Building
37. Burn	38. Burst	39. Business	40. Butter
41.Canvas	42. Care	43. Cause	44. Chalk
45. Chance	46. Change	47. Cloth	48. Coal
49. Colour	50. Comfort	51. Committee	52. Company

53. Comparison	54. Competition	55. Condition	56. Connection
57. Control	58. Cook	59. Copper	60. Copy
61. Cork	62. Cotton	63. Cough	64. Country
65. Cover	66. Crack	67. Credit	68. Crime
69. Crush	70. Cry	71. Current	72. Curve
73. Damage	74. Danger	75. Draughts	76. Day
77. Death	78. Debt	79. Decision	80. Degree
81. Design	82. Desire	83. Destruction	84. Detail
85. Development	86. Digestion	87. Direction	88. Discovery
89. Discussion	90. Disease	91. Disgust	92. Distance
93. Distribution	94. Division	95. Doubt	96. Drink
97. Driving	98. Dust	99. Earth	100. Edge
101. Education	102. Effect	103. End	104. Error
105. Every	106. Example	107. Exchange	108. Existence
109. Expansion	110. Experience	111. Expert	112. Fact
113. Fall	114. Family	115. Father	116. Fear
117. Feeling	118. Fiction	119. Field	120. Fight
121. Fire	122. Flame	123. Flight	124. Flower
125. Fold	126. Food	127. Force	128. Form
129. Friend	130. Front	131. Fruit	132. Glass
133. Gold	134. Government	135. Grain	136. Grass
137. Grip	138. Group	139. Growth	140. Guide
141. Harbour	142. Harmony	143. Hate	144. Hearing
145. Heat	146. Help	147. History	148. Hole
149. Hope	150. Hour	151. Humour	152. Ice
153. Idea	154. Impulse	155. Increase	156. Industry
157. Ink	158. Insect	159. Instrument	160. Insurance
161. Interest	162. Invention	163. Iron	164. Jelly
165. Join	166. Journey	167. Judge	168. Jump
169. Kick	170. Kiss	171. Knowleage	172. Land
173. Language	174. Laugh	175. Law	176. Lead
177. Learning	178. Leather	179. Letter	180. Level
181. Lift	182. Light	183. Limit	184. Linen
185. Liquid	186. List	187. Look	188. Loss
189. Love	190. Machine	191. Man	192. Manager
193. Mark	194. Market	195. Mass	196. Meal
197. Measure	198. Meat	199. Meeting	200. Memory
201. Metal	202. Middle	203. Mile	204. Mind
205. Mine	206. Minute	207. Mist	208. Money
209. Month	210. Morning	211. Mother	212. Motion
213. Mountain	214. Move	215. Music	216. Name
217. Nation	218. Need	219. News	220. Night
221. Noise	222. Note	223. Number	224. Observation
225. Offer	226. Oil	227. Operation	228. Opinion
229. Order	230. Organisation	231. Ornament	232. Owner

233. Page	234. Pain	235. Paint	236. Paper
237. Part	238. Paste	239. Payment	240. Peace
241. Person	242. Place	243. Plant	244. Play
245. Pleasure	246. Point	247. Poison	248. Polish
249. Porter	250. Position	251. Powder	252. Power
253. Price	254. Print	255. Process	256. Produce
257. Profit	258. Property	259. Prose	260. Protest
261. Pull	262. Punishment	263. Purpose	264. Push
265. Quality	266. Question	267. Rain	268. Range
269. Rate	270. Ray	271. Reaction	272. Reading
273. Reason	274. Record	275. Regret	276. Relation
277. Religion	278. Representative	279. Regular	280. Respect
281. Rest	282. Reward	283. Rhythm	284.Rice
285. River	286. Road	287. Roll	288.Room
289. Rub	290. Rule	291. Run	292. Salt
293. Sand	294. Scale	295. Science	296. Sea
297. Seat	298. Secretary	299. Selection	300. Self
301. Sense	302. Servant	303. Sex	304. Shade
305. Shake	306. Shame	307. Shock	308. Side
309. Sign	310. Silk	311. Silver	312. Sister
313. Size	314. Sky	315. Sleep	316. Slip
317. Slope	318. Smash	319. Smell	320. Smile
321. Smoke	322. Sneeze	323. Snow	324. Soap
325. Society	326. Son	327. Song	328. Sort
329. Sound	330. Soup	331. Space	332. Stage
333. Start	334. Statement	335. Steam	336. Steel
337. Step	338. Stitch	339. Stone	340. Stop
341. Story	342. Stretch	343. Structure	344. Substance
345. Sugar	346. Suggestion	347. Summer	348. Support
349. Surprise	350. Swim	351. System	352. Tale
353. Taste	354. Tax	355. Teaching	356. Tendency
357. Test	358. Theory	359. Thing	360. Thought
361. Thunder	362. Time	363. Tin	364. Top
365. Touch	366. Trade	367. Transport	368. Trick
369. Trouble	370. Turn	371. Twist	372. Unit
373. Use	374. Value	375. Verse	376. Vessel
377. View	378. Voice	379. Walk	380. War
381. Wash	382. Waste	383. Water	384. Wave
385. Wax	386. Way	387. Weather	388. Week
389. Weight	390. Wind	391. Wine	392. Winter
393. Woman	394. Wood	395. Wool	396. Word
397. Work	398. Wound	399. Writing	400. Year

(C) THINGS (PICTURABLE OBJECTS)

1. Angle	2. Art	3. Apple	4. Arch
5. Arm	6. Army	7. Baby	8. Bag

9. Ball
10. Band
11. Basin
12. Basket
13. Bath
14. Bee
15. Bed
16. Bell
17. Berry
18. Bird
19. Blade
20. Board
21. Boat
22. Bone
23. Book
24. Boot
25. Bottle
26. Box
27. Boy
28. Brain
29. Brake
30. Branch
31. Brick
32. Bridge
33. Brush
34. Buckett
35. Bulb
36. Button
37. Cake
38. Camera
39. Card
40. Cart
41. Carriage
42. Cat
43. Chain
44. Cheese
45. Chest
46. Chin
47. Church
48. Circle
49. Clock
50. Cloud
51. Coat
52. Collar
53. Comb
54. Cord
55. Cow
56. Cup
57. Curtain
58. Cushion
59. Dog
60. Door
61. Drain
62. Drawer
63. Dress
64. Drop
65. Ear
66. Egg
67. Engine
68. Eye
69. Face
70. Farm
71. Feather
72. Finger
73. Fish
74. Flag
75. Floor
76. Fly
77. Foot
78. Fork
79. Fowl
80. Frame
81. Garden
82. Girl
83. Glove
84. Goat
85. Gun
86. Hair
87. Hammer
88. Hand
89. Hat
90. Head
91. Heart
92. Hook
93. Horn
94. Horse
95. Hospital
96. House
97. Island
98. Jewel
99. Kettle
100. Key
101. Knee
102. Knife
103. Knot
104. Leaf
105. Leg
106. Library
107. Link
108. Lip
109. Lock
110. Map
111. Match
112. Monkey
113. Moon
114. Mouth
115. Muscle
116. Nail
117. Neck
118. Needle
119. Nerve
120. Net
121. Nose
122. Nut
123. Office
124. Orange
125. Oven
126. Parcel
127. Pen
128. Pencil
129. Picture
130. Pig
131. Pin
132: Pipe
133. Plane
134. Plate
135. Plough
136. Pocket
137. Pot
138. Potato
139. Prison
140. Pump
141. Rail
142. Rat
143. Receipt
144. Ring
145. Rod
146. Roof
147. Root
148. Sail
149. School
150. Scissors
151. Screw
152. Seed
153. Sheep
154. Shelf
155. Ship
156. Shirt
157. Shoe
158. Skin
159. Skirt
160. Snake
161. Sock
162. Spade
163. Sponge
164. Spoon
165. Spring
166. Square
167. Stamp
168. Star
169. Station
170. Stem
171. Stick
172. Stocking
173. Stomach
174. Store
175. Street
176. Sun
177. Table
178. Tail
179. Thread
180. Throat
181. Thumb
182. Ticket
183. Toe
184. Tongue
185. Tooth
186. Town
187. Train
188. Tray

189. Tree	190. Trousers	191. Umbrella	192. Wall
193. Watch	194. Wheel	195. Whip	196. Whistle
197. Window	198. Wing	199. Wire	200. Worm

(D) QUALITIES (GENERAL)

1. Able	2. Acid	3. Angry	4. Automatic
5. Beautiful	6. Black	7. Boiling	8. Bright
9. Broken	10. Brown	11. Cheat	12. Chief
13. Chemical	14. Clean	15. Clear	16. Common
17. Complex	18. Conscious	19. Cut	20. Deep
21. Dependent	22. Early	23. Elastic	24. Electric
25. Equal	26. Fat	27. Fertile	28. First
29. Fixed	30. Flat	31. Free	32. Frequent
33. Full	34. General	35. Good	36. Great
37. Grey	38. Hanging	39. Happy	40. Hard
41. Healthy	42. High	43. Hollow	44. Important
45. Kind	46. Like	47. Living	48. Long
49. Male	50. Married	51. Material	52. Medical
53. Military	54. Natural	55. Necessary	56. New
57. Normal	58. Open	59. Parellel	60. Past
61. Physical	62. Political	63. Poor	64. Possible
65. Present	66. Private	67. Probable	68. Quick
69. Quiet	70. Ready	71. Red	72. Regular
73. Responsible	74. Right	75. Round	76. Same
77. Second	78. Separate	79. Serious	80. Sharp
81. Smooth	82. Sticky	83. Stiff	84. Straight
85. Strong	86. Sudden	87. Sweet	88. Tall
89. Thick	90. Tight	91. Tired	92. True
93. Violent	94. Waiting	95. Warm	96. Wet
97. Wide	98. Wise	99. Yellow	100. Young.

(E) QUALITIES (OPPOSITES)

1. Awake	2. Bad	3. Bent	4. Bitter
5. Blue	6. Certain	7. Cold	8. Complete
9. Cruel	10. Dark	11. Dead	12. Dear
13. Delicate	14. Different	15. Dirty	16. Dry
17. False	18. Feeble	19. Female	20. Foolish
21. Future	22. Green	23. Ill	24. Last
25. Late	26. Left	27. Loose	28. Loud
29. Low	30. Mixed	31. Narrow	32. Old
33. Opposite	34. Public	35. Rough	36. Sad
37. Safe	38. Secret	39. Short	40. Shut
41. Simple	42. Slow	43. Small	44. Soft
45. Solid	46. Special	47. Strange	48. Thin
49. White	50. Wrong		

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STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Q. 1 Explain, with the help of a diagram, the mechanism of speech describing the role of the vocal organs in the transmission of speech sounds?

Or

Describe the air-stream mechanism in speaking English.

Or

What role do the lungs play in the production of speech.

Or

Where is the larynx ? What is another name for it?

Or

Where are the vocal cords ? What do they consist of?

Ans. Language or the faculty of speech is something which is common to all human beings. In using a language we are operating with the help of our faculty of speech, "a particular code, a particular set of conventions" about which there is general agreement among the members of our community. The use of language primarily involves the two processes of making the sounds of speech with our vocal organs and hearing other people's speech sounds through our ears. Because of the primacy of speech in all consideration of language, the mechanism of the transmission of speech sounds has to be studied carefully. Only by a clear understanding of the processes involved in the transmission of speech sounds, we can explain the changes that affect languages in time and space. In other words, the differences between British English and Modern English, or the differences between British and American English can only be explained in terms of language as spoken and heard.

All people learn to speak long before learning to write and in our every day lives we generally have more occasion to speak or hear the words of our language than to read or write them. The spoken form being thus the more important manifestation of language, it is only reasonable that the mechanism of human speech and the role of the vocal organs in the production of speech sounds should be carefully analysed and closely studied.

A baby is able to produce various sounds and tunes from its mouth long before it is able to recognise the sounds of speech produced by its elders or to imitate them. The next stage is marked by the child's learning to imitate the speech sounds used by the people around. We have to remember that in doing this, the child, like its elders, is imposing certain habits on some organs of the body which have other primary biological functions.

The utterance of speech sounds must be considered as a secondary activity of the organs like the lungs, larynx, pharynx, and the mouth and

nasal cavities which constitute the respiratory tract.

The utterance of the sounds of his speech, which are learnt by a human being over years of trial and error, involves a complex operation. For the transmission of the simplest concept in the mind through the intermediary of speech a complicated chain of events has to be set in motion. It starts with the psychological stimulus which is conveyed to the vocal organs by the nervous systems, so that the lungs, the larynx, the vocal chords and the parts of the mouth and nasal cavities are activated in such a way that they perform a series of deliberate movements. These, as we have come to know from experience result in the production of particular patterns of sound and this is called the articulation stage of speech. The listener's hearing apparatus or auditory organs receive the variation of pressure in the air which have been created by the movements of the speaker's vocal organs. This information is immediately conveyed by the listener's nervous system to his brain, where the message is linguistically interpreted. This is known as the reception stage of communication through human speech.

Though the activity of the speaker's vocal organs and the reactions of the listener's auditory organs are equally important in the transmission of ideas through speech, the analysis of the mechanism of speech is mainly concerned with the articulatory stage and hence we have to study, in detail, the role of the vocal organs in the production of speech sounds. These vocal organs are shown in the figure I.

First among the organs of speech are the *lungs* which serve as the most usual source of energy in speech. From the lungs a stream of air is expelled, during articulation, through the opening of the mouth or nose or both. Though it is possible to make noises which do not require the expulsion of air from the lungs, as in the 'tut-tut' of irritation, such noises are not included in the list of English speech sounds.

Next to the lungs we may consider the *vocal cords* which are contained in the larynx or the hard casing of the throat which is often called the Adam's Apple. These vocal cords consist of two folds of ligament and elastic issue which may be brought together or parted. Glottis is the name given to the opening between the cords. The primary, biological function of the vocal cords is to act as a gate to prevent any foreign body from entering into the trachea and lungs or to assist in any muscular effort of the arms or abdomen, while remaining closed. In human articulation they perform a secondary function by assuming a variety of positions. While remaining wide open they allow the air-stream to escape freely as in breathing, or as when we say au [s] or producing audible

ORGANS OF SPEECH

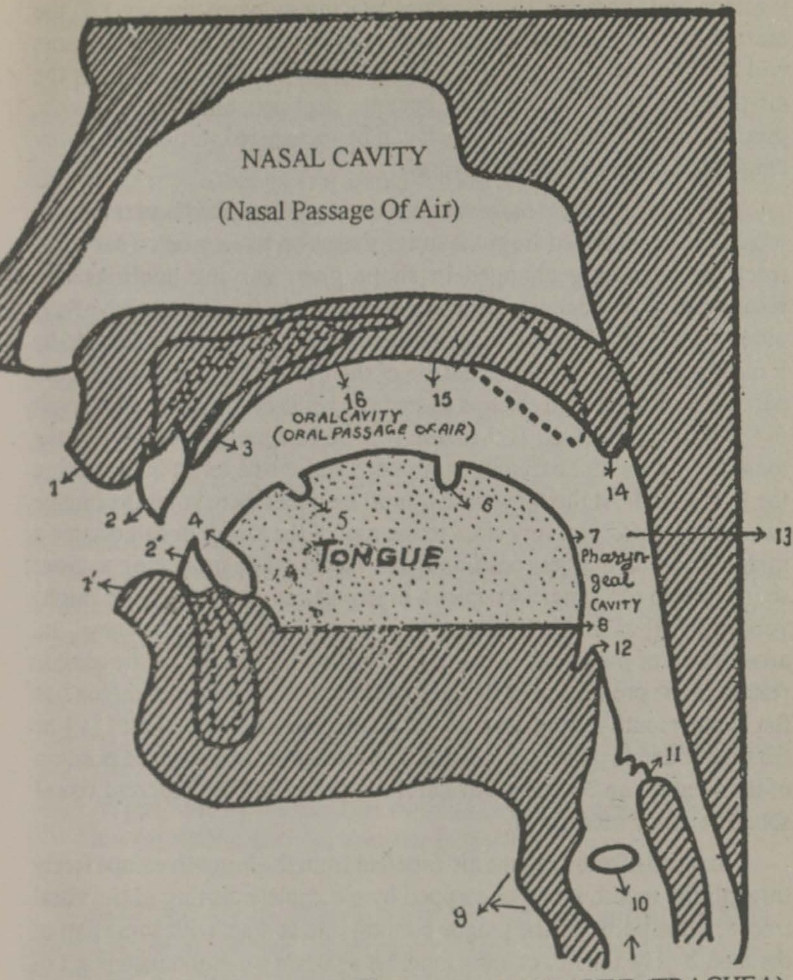


Figure 1 WIND PIPE (TRACHEA)

1. Lips
2. Teeth
3. Alveolar Ridge
4. Tip (Tongue)
5. Blade (Tongue)
6. Front (Tongue)
7. Back (Tongue)
8. Root of tongue
9. Larynx
10. Vocal cords
11. Oesophagus (Gullet food passage)
12. Epiglottis
13. Pharynx
14. Uvula
15. Soft Palate
16. Hard Palate

gllottal friction when the air-stream is driven out with sufficient energy as in pronouncing a strong [b] sound. When the vocal cords are close together and vibrating they produce voicing as when we say [z]. the more rapid the vibration of the cords, the higher the pitch of the note will be. The voal cords can also remain tightly closed so as to allow the air-pressure from the lungs to become pent-up behind the closure, producing the 'glottal stop' which can be recognized initially in a very emphatic pronunciation of 'anyone'.

The *pharynx and the mouth cavities constitute* the vocal tract over which the air expelled from the lungs moves on its way out. This vocal tract, by becoming changed in shape gives varying qualities and resonances to the sounds produced. Vowel sounds, for instance have their quality determined by the shape of the tongue, the position occupied by it during articulation and the shape of the lips. A humping of the front part of the tongue with the lips spread out while articulating, will result in the production of the [i :] sound, while a humping of the back of the tongue, with the lips assuming a rounded shape will result in producing the [u :] sound. At the same time it must be remembered that the tongue can occupy a position very close to the roof of the mouth or can occupy a middle position or a low position in the mouth while producing a vowel sound. When the tongue occupies a high position we have a close (high) vowel like [i] as in *bit*. In the mid position of the tongue, we have the articulation of the vowel in bet [ae], and the low position of the tongue results in the production of the [ae] vowel a in sat. When the tongue lies flat in the mouth during articulation a vowel like the one in bird [ə:] or the final sound in corner [e] is heard. The change in the shape and position of the tongue can be noticed by carefully producing the different vowel sounds already mentioned.

Instead of allowing the air expelled from the lungs to escape freely through the mouth it can be stopped by a complete closing of the vocal tract at some point, by the tongue coming into contact with some part of the mouth or by the lips coming together as when we pronounce [k,g,t,d] or [p,b]. It is possible to have the vocal tract narrowed so as to result in audible friction as between the lower lip and the upper teeth [f,v] or between the tip of the tongue and the teeth [θ, ð] or between the tongue and the alveolar ridge [s,z].

The nasal cavity which is primarily meant for breathing has a secondary function in connection with articulation. Normally when a person breathes, the soft palate remains in its lowered position allowing the air to escape through the nose. In the production of all English sounds excepting [m.nƆ ,] the soft palate remains in its raised position thus

shutting off the nasal cavity and preventing the air stream from escaping through the nose. But while pronouncing [m,n,ŋ] which are known as the nasal sounds the soft palate is in its lowered position and the mouth passage is completely closed off so as to allow the air to escape through the nose. If the passage is blocked, as when a person is having a cold, his attempt to pronounce an [m] sound results in a [b] being produced. So also are the [u] and [ŋ] sounds made to sound like [d] and [g] respectively when the nasal passage is blocked. So morning will sound like ['bordig']

Generally, it may be pointed out that the English vowel sounds which are all characterised by voice, as distinguished from the consonances some of which are not voiced, are given their respective resonances, or qualities by the shape and position assumed of the tongue and the lip's during articulation. The consonant sounds on the other hand, may be voiced or voiceless, with a closure or narrowing of the vocal tract in its upper cavities, and with the opening of the nasal cavity, in conjunction with the complete closing of the mouth cavity in the production of the nasal consonants [m,n,ŋ]. Consonants like p. t, k, t, ʃ, f, θ, s, ʃ, h are pronounced with relatively great energy fortis and are never voiced, while others like b, d, g, dz, m, n,ŋ. i, j, w, r, v, ð z are more weakly articulated (lenis) but may be voiced.

Q. 2 Write an essay on the sounds of speech and their classifications.? *Or*

How do we classify (a) vowels (b) consonants? Give examples from English. *Or*

What kind of sounds can we make when the vocal chords— are (a) wide open; (b) vibrating; (c) shut ?

Ans. The sounds of speech are produced by certain deliberate movements of the human vocal organs. These human organs of speech form a kind of musical instrument in which the vibrating apparatus is provided by certain ligaments which are stretched across the wind-pipe and are known by the name of the vocal chords, while the outer tube or tubes through which the waves of sound pass are furnished by the different configurations of the mouth.

When the vocal chords are drawn across the wind-pipe so as to close it, the air driven out from the lungs in articulation, passes in a series of puffs through these chords making them vibrate. This vibration results in a buzzing sound known as voice. Sounds which are accompanied by this sort of vibration of the vocal chords are known as voiced sounds.

On the other hand, if the vocal chords, instead of being drawn tight across the windpipe. remain folded back against its walls, the air passes through the throat without any hindrance and without causing any vibration of the vocal chords. Sounds thus produced without any accompanying vibration of the vocal chords are called voiceless, unvoiced or breath sounds. Z as in 'buzz', V as in 'voice,' 'th' as in 'thus' are examples of voiced sounds. S as in 'sit', f as in 'fat' and 'th' as in 'thin' are examples of voiceless sounds.

All vowels, as the name implies, are voiced sounds. Consonants and vowels differ fundamentally in the degree of the opening of the mouth passage and in the vibration of the vocal chords. While all vowel sounds are accompanied by vibration of the vocal chords, only some consonants are accompanied by this voicing. Also, in producing a consonant the mouth passage is either completely stopped for a moment, or sufficiently closed as to produce audible friction during articulation. The first type of consonant where the mouth passage is temporarily closed so as to stop the air-stream is called stop consonant, [p, t, k, b, d, g,] are examples of stop consonants. When the air stream expelled from the lungs meets with some obstacle in the throat or in the mouth, and is allowed to escape through an opening. the resulting consonant sounds are called open consonants or fricatives.

Instead of allowing the air stream to escape through a narrow passage and causing audible friction, or completely stopping it at some point in the mouth, it is also possible to produce consonant sounds by closing the mouth passage entirely and allowing the stream of air to escape through the nasal passage. Consonants so produced are called nasals. The consonants, m, n, and ng as in 'sing" are example of nasal sounds. Besides stop consonants, open consonants, and nasal we have two more categories of consonant sounds. These are the divided consonants, popularly known as 'l' sounds, and the trills. The divided consonants are formed by making complete contact between some part of the tongue and the corresponding area of the roof of the mouth or the teeth, while at the same time the edges and sides of the tongue are allowed to sink slightly so that air-stream can pass out through either side of the point of contact. In the divided consonants the airstream is actually getting divided and hence the name. The English 'l' as in 'ill' 'kill' etc. is produced by the point of the tongue making contact with the teeth.

The trills or 'r' sounds are produced by the rapid vibration of the point of the tongue behind the upper teeth. Thus we have the 'r' sounds or trills produced.

Though throat open consonants exist in many of the continental languages and also in several forms of Scots, they do not exist in English. The majority of English consonants are made in the mouth by the different parts of the tongue and are accordingly divided into back consonants, front consonants, blade consonants, and point consonants. In back consonants, the back of the tongue is used while in front consonants, the middle of the tongue comes into play. Blade consonants, are made by the part of the tongue immediately behind the tip and point consonants are made with the help of the tongue. The sounds k,g, are back consonants, while in 'youth' is an example of a front consonant. S, z are blade point consonants. 'Sh' as in 'ship' and 's' as in 'measure' are blade point consonants & 't' and 'd' are point consonants. 'Th' as in 'think' and as in 'then' represent the voiceless and voiced form of the point teeth consonants. Certain other consonants are made by the lips which come together in articulation. P,b. and w and v are examples of lip-consonants. Consonants are also formed by the combined activities of the palate and the lips or the tongue and palate, or the tongue and the uvula.

Thus in classifying the consonantal sounds in English we have to find the answer to three questions :—

1. What is the place of articulation ?

In answser to this Prof.A.C.Gimson gives the following classifications:—

1. Bilabial—involving articulation by the two lips, resulting in the consonants /p,b,m w/

2. Labio-dental—involving articulation by the lower lip and upper teeth, resulting in /f,v/

3. Dental—involving articulation by the tongue and upper teeth as in /θ,=/

4. Alveolar—involving articulatio ·v the tongue and upper teeth ridge as in /t,d,n,s,z,l/

5. Post-alveolar—involving by the tongue and .he back part of teeth ridge as in as in /r/

6. Palato-alveolar—involving articulation by the tongue and both teeth ridge and hard palate as in /tf, dz, f, z/

7. Palatal—involving articulation by the tongue and hard palate, as in /j/

8. Velar—involving articulation by the tongue and soft palate as in /k, g,ŋ/

9. Glottal—involving articulation largely in the glottis, as in /h/

2. What is the type of articulation?

In answer to this, the following classifications have been given by Prof. Gimson:—

1. Stop—involving a total interruption of the air stream and plosive-involving a total closure with possible rapid explosive release of the air-stream as in /p, b, t, b, k, g/

2. Affricate—involving a total closure of the air stream, with a slow, fricative release, in/tf,dz/

3. Continuant—in which the air stream escapes with different degrees of freedom and including :—

Nasal consonants—with a total closure of the mouth cavity, but, with the lowering of the soft palate, the air escaping freely through the nose as in /m, n,ŋ/

Non-fricative (lateral) consonants-with a point closure between the tongue and the teeth ridge with free escape of air at the sides as in/1/

Non-fricative (vowel-like) consonants-with a relatively free escape of air in the absence of any great construction or closure as in/w,i, r/

Fricative consonants-involving a construction sufficiently close to produce audible friction as in/f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ,b/

3. Is there voicing or not, during articulation?

In answer to this,it has been pointed out that certain consonants are typically said with comparatively great energy (fortis) and are never voiced like/p. t. k. ʃ. f. θ, ʃ/ while other are more weakly articulated and are voiced like/b, d. g. dz, m. nŋ . I, j. w. r, v, ô, v, 3/

Exercise in making the various consonant sounds by passing from back consonant to point consonant and stop consonant to open consonant enable us to realise how sound changes occur. In stating the sound changes involved in Gimsons' Law and Verners's Law, we have to think in terms of sounds and not in terms of letters which are only the symbols of sounds. Only by thinking in term of sounds, and understanding the way in which the different classes of sounds are formed it is easy for us to understand how, according to Gimson' Law, the Indo-European stop consonants became open consonants in Germanic.

The following table prepared by A.C.Gimson classifies these consonantal articulations, the voiceless (fortis) articulation, in the case

of pairs, being placed on the left:

	Bila bial	Lap od- enta	Den- tal	Alve- olar	Post- Alve- olar	Pala- to-? Alve- olar	Pala tal	Velar	Glo- ttal
Stop-Plosive	p. b			t, d				k, g	(?)
Affricate						tʃ,dz			
Continuant Nasal	m			n				Ͽ	
Non-fricative (lateral)				l					
Non-fricative (vowel like)	w				r		j		
Fricative		f.v		s. z		ʃ, z			h

Vowels:

Vowels, as has been already mentioned, are all voiced sounds. In classifying vowels four important points have to be considered. The first is the height of the tongue, while producing a vowel sound, and recording to this, we have high, low, and mid vowels.

The tongue can be raised or lowered in the mouth and these movements of the tongue naturally correspond with movements of the jaw. When the tongue is raised high in mouth, the vowel formed is called a high one and when the tongue occupies the middle of the mouth, a mid vowel is formed. The low position of the tongue involves a still greater lowering of the lower jaw and opening of the mouth more widely. Examples of high, mid, and low vowels are heard in bit, bet and bat respectively.

The second is for the classification of vowels in the activity of the lips which may or may not assume a rounded shape while vowels are produced. When the lips are rounded, we have rounded vowels and when the lips remain passive or rounded, we have unrounded vowels. 'A' as in 'father', i as in 'hit', e as in 'met' are all examples of unrounded vowels while 'o' as in 'not', ɔ: as in 'hall, 'u' as n 'put', are examples of rounded vowels.

In pronouncing a vowel the tongue may be remaining braced and hard or soft and slack. The first condition results in the production of vowels which are known as tense vowels and the second condition results in the production of slack vowels. /a:/ as in 'father' & /ae/ as in 'sat' are

instances of slack vowels, while /i/ as in 'he', /e/ as in 'bɔt' and /u:/as in 'shoe', 'shoot'are examples of tense vowels.

The fourth classification of vowels depends on whether the tongue is drawn back in the mouth so as to allow the back part to come into play or advanced so as to make the front part to come into play. When the back part of the tongue comes into play we say back vowels are formed and when the front part comes into play we say front vowels are formed. At the same time if the tongue lies flat in the mouth so that its whole upper surface is used in articulation, we say that flat vowels are produced. A as in 'father', 'saw', 'hall' are back vowels, while the vowels in bet, bat, bit are front vowels. The vowel murmur in the last syllable of 'butter', 'father' etc. and the vowel in 'heard', 'worm', 'bird' etc. are examples of flat vowels. They are also called central vowels.

In the pronunciation of back vowels, the tongue slopes down from back to front and in front vowels the tongue slopes from front to back. Hence, back vowels and front vowels together are called sloped vowels.

On the basis of the tongue-raising or lowering in terms of the region of the mouth in which it takes place (front, centre or back) and the degree of raising or lowering close (high) in the mouth or open (low) in the mouth it is possible according to Prof. A C.Gimson to have the following table indicating the articulatory relationships of the English vowels.

	Front	Centre	Back
Close	i:		
(High)	I	U	
	e	ɜ: (ə:)	
	ae	ə	ɔ:
Open		ʌ	
(low)		a:	ɔ

Diphthongs:

In the pronunciation many words, we have, instead of single vowels, a combination of two distinct vowel sounds, one of which will be stressed and the other unstressed and giving the impression of syllable. These vowel combination such as we have in words like 'play', 'houses', 'rouse',are known as diphthongs. In the course of the history of a language we very often find diphthongs being reduced to single vowels and single vowels being developed into diphthongs by the influence of combinative factors at work. The english diphthongs (glides) may be represented as follows, the gliding from one vowel to another being indicated by the direction of the arrows as shown in the diagram.

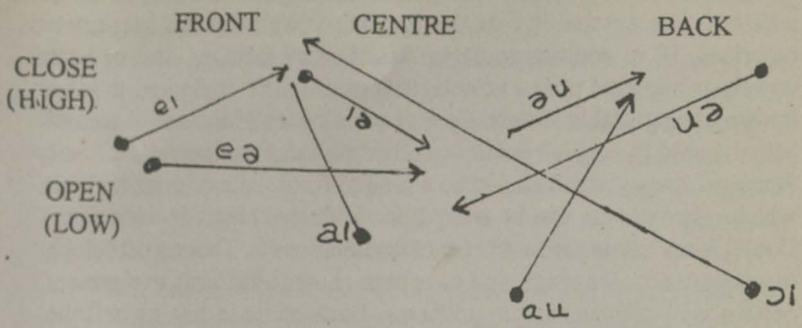


Fig. No. II

Q.3 What are cardinal vowels, and how are the English vowels related to them? ***Or***

How do we produce different vowel sounds?

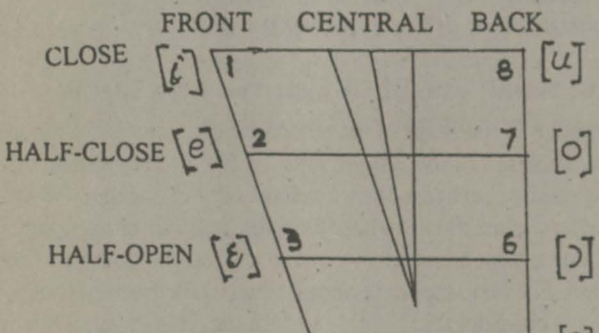
Or

How do we classify vowels? Give example from English.

Ans. Alteration in the shape of the resonance chamber of the mouth, caused by the movements of the tongue and the lips are responsible for the difference in quality between one vowel sound and another. Vowels can be identified by a classification based on the position of the tongue, the part of the tongue which is mainly concerned and the activity of the lips in articulation. For instance, in pronouncing (i:) the front part of the tongue is raised to a considerable height, and for (ae) it is lower, while in pronouncing (a:) and (ɔ) it is the back part of the tongue which comes into activity. In the pronunciation of (ɜ) or ( ) it is the central part of the tongue which is raised. On the basis of the part of the tongue which is raised, vowels are divided into front, central, and back vowels, and according to the degree of raising they are divided into high, mid and low vowels or close, half close, half-open and open vowels. The lips can be neutrally open spread, close rounded or open rounded.

The English vowels according to this scheme of classification can be divided into front, central and back vowels, or close, half-close, half-open and open vowels. For identifying them we classify them according to the position of the tongue, but the difficulty arises when we come across several varieties of (i, ɜ , or o) sounds or when we find that one

person pronounces his (a:) sound more as a front vowel than as back vowel. How are we to refer to the correct English vowels sounds in writing? The answer is that the English vowels can be accurately described, if, in addition to being classified as front, central or back vowels or high,mid or low vowels, they can each be compared to some known unchangeable vowels. To give a clear idea of the vowel sounds actually used in English (or in any other language) we must have some *Standard vowels* which should be a kind of fixed scale or measure with which other vowels can be compared. With this object in view Prof. Daniel Jones has devised a scheme of *cardinal vowels*. They do not belong to any particular language, and have been chosen arbitrarily to represent certain well-defined tongue positions. Each of these has its definite acoustic quality. The cardinal vowels form an acoustic sequence so that the intervals between any two consecutive sounds shall be as nearly as possible equal. The diagram below indicates the tongue positions for each of the cardinal vowels which are numbered 1 to 8 in the diagrams:



THE PRIMARY CARDINAL VOWELS

Fig. No. III

The numbers which mark the four corners of the cardinal vowel figure indicate four tongue positions. Number one indicates the tongue position of the most forward and the closest (highest) vowel sound possible. Number 4 indicates the tongue position of (a) the lowest and most forward vowel sound possible. Similarly number five indicates (a) the lowest and most retracted sound possible, while number eight indicates (u) the closest (highest) and most retracted sound possible. Two intermediate tongue positions between number one and number four are indicated by the points marked as number two and number three giving the vowels (e) and (ɛ) respectively. Similarly there are two intermediate tongue positions, number six and number seven between the points

marked as number five and number eight, giving us the vowels (ɔ) and (o) respectively. Cardinal vowel numbers two and three indicate the tongue position for half-close and half-open front vowels respectively, while the numbers seven and six mark the tongue position for the half-close and half-open back vowels respectively. Thus we have a general indication of the relative tongue positions of the eight primary cardinal vowels. When we know the pronunciation of these eight cardinal vowels and their respective positions in the given diagram, any other vowels in question can be placed on the diagram and thus its relation to the nearest cardinal vowels can be known. This will help us to pronounce any given vowel correctly. It will also be possible to show and interpret the relation of any vowel to any other with considerable accuracy.,

The English vowels, as they are pronounced by educated English speakers or the speakers of Standard English, are indicated in the cardinal diagram below, with their positions marked by an encircled E.

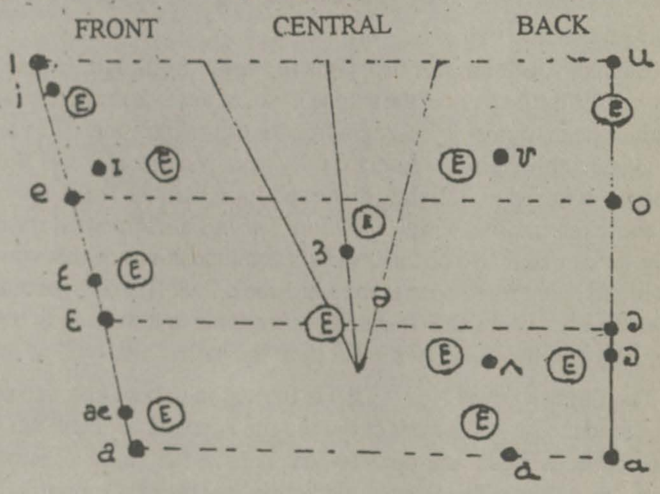


Figure No. IV

For convenience in reference, the English vowels shown in the above diagram may be numbered as below :

1—i (i: in Daniel Jones)

2—I (i in Daniel Jones)

3 (ɜ in Daniel Jones)

4—ae

5—a

6—ɐ (ɔ in Daniel Jones)

7—ɔ (ɔ: in Daniel Jones)

8—v (u in Deniel Jones)

9—u (u: in Daniel Jones)

10—ʌ

11—Ʒ (ə: in Daniel Jones)

12—ə

No. : I, (i) is the vowel we hear in feed, heel, sea etc. It is a long vowel and in its pronunciation the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate to a close position very near to cardinal vowel No: 1 and the lips are spread to neutral. It must be remembered that many words which are pronounced with an (i) sound when they are pronounced by themselves, have this vowel changed into an (I) or (ə) when they occur in unstressed positions. The (i) vowel in he, she, we, be, the and been is thus changed into (I) or (ə).

English vowel number two, (I) is the vowel in sit, kill, hid etc. In pronouncing this the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, the highest point of raising being towards the central position. The vowel is (I), considerably retracted from the fully front position of vowel No. 1. The tongue is raised to a slightly higher position than the half-close one and is above the cardinal vowel 2 position. The lips are somewhat spread. Usually we can hear two or three variant pronunciations of this vowel, the (I) in hill being more open than in hit, and a final (I) being generally of a low variety. Where the (I) sound occurs twice in a word as in busy, city, smithly etc. the final (I) is lower than the earlier one.

The English vowel No : 3, (Σ) is the sound in best, egg, sell etc., and in pronouncing it the front of the tongue is raised to about half the distance between close and open so that it is in the position between cardinal (e) and (a). The lips remain neutral to spread. Comparing the (Σ) vowel in gest, egg and sell, we find that in the first word it is somewhat closer than in the other two and in the third it is more open than in the first two. It must be remembered that a dark I which follows the (Σ) always has the effect of lowering it as in bell.

Vowel No. 4, (ae) is the one in sat, had, batch etc. In pronouncing it the front of the tongue is raised to about one sixth of the distance between the close and open position. The vowel occurs about half-way between cardinal vowel No.3 and cardinal vowel No.4 with the lips remaining neutral to spread. An important factor in the articulation of (ae) is a certain degree of pharyngeal contraction, making it diffcult for singers to use this sound in singing.

Vowel No. : 5, [a :] is the one in father, hard, cart, half etc. It is the back of the tongue which is concerned in the articulation of this vowel. The tongue remains quite low down in the mouth, in the position for an open vowel like cardinal vowel No, : 4 or cardinal vowel No. : 5 and the lips are neutrally open. It is a more forward vowel than cardinal vowel 5, occurring midway between a fully retracted vowel like cardinal [a] and the centre of the line for a............a. In the Northern dialects and in some types of Irish and American speech, this [a :] is often changed into [ae] in words like can't, half, grass, ask etc. which become [keant, heaf, graes, aesk].

Vowel No. : 6, [ɐ] or [ɔ] is the sound in not, box, long etc. In pronouncing this vowel the back of the tongue is raised slightly to a position a little above that of cardinal [a] but still open. In the Northern dialects and in some varieties of American speech the [ɔ] is often replaced by [ɔ :] especially in words written with wa as in watch, was, want etc. [wɔ : tʃ, wɔ : z, wɔ: nt]. In some American dialects this [ɔ] is rounded to [ʌ] so that hot becomes [hʌt].

Vowel No. : 7, is [c :] the sound in hall, taught, saw etc. In pronouncing this vowel, the back of the tongue is raised very close to the cardinal position and it is a half open vowel. The lips are considerably rounded, as is not the case with other vowels having this tongue position.

Vowel No. 8, is v (u) the sound in push, look, good etc. In the pronounciation of this vowel, the back of the tongue is raised toward the soft palate and the raising is slightly advanced from the full back position. The tongue is raised to a position near to that of the close one than that of the half-close one and the lips remain generally close round. In the Northern dialects in England this vowel is often replaced by the longer vowel [u :] in words like cook, book look etc. which become [ku : k, bu : k, lu: k]

Vowel No. : 9: [u :] is heard in crude, fool, nook etc. In pronouncing this the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate and the tongue is very near the close position for cardinal u while the lips are close rounded. When this [u :] is preceded by a [j] sound as in music, [mju] : [sik] it has a more forward position and when it is followed by a dark 'l' as in fool, a lower vowel is often heard.

Vowel No. : 10, [ʌ] is the sound in cut, but, must etc. In pronouncing this the back of the tongue is raised, but instead of being a fully back sound, it is rather advanced towards central line, as in the case of [ə :] while the lips remain neutral.

Vowel No. : 11, [⋜:] is the sound in bird, learn, world etc. In the pronunciation of this, the central part for the tongue is raised to a position half between open and close and the lips remain neutral. The symbol [ə :] is also used for this vowel. In some Scottish dialects where the r is rolled in words like bird the [ə :] is changed into [ʌ] so that 'bird' is pronounced as [bv rd], while in some parts of Lancashire and Cheshire the [ə :] has a more forward position, approaching [Σ] so that fur becomes [f Σ :] insead of [fə :] Both variants are avoided in Standard English.

Vowel No. : 12, [ə] is the first vowel in 'above' and the last in 'father'. In pronouncing it the central part of the tongue is raised to about one-third of the way from the open to the close position, while the lips remain neutral. This vowel is always very short. It becomes a vowel of a half-close tongue position between two velar consonants as in back again [back ə gein] but it changes to a position well below the cardinal Σ ··· ɔ line when occurring finally.

This vowel is very important in English as it replasces almost all other vowels and dipthongs in unstressed positions. But [i :] and [i] are not generally replaced by [ə] In unstressed position [i] is replaced by i and I remains the same. However, the strong form of the article [ð] is replaced by [ð ə] in unstressed positions when a consonant follows it, while it remains the same with a following vowel in the next word [θ buk, i aidə]. Ida Ward list the following words as examples of the neutral vowel replacing strong forms of other vowels in unstressed positions.

Σ in pence	but in six-pence [sikspens]
ae ,, valid [vae lid]	"ə" validity [və lidity]
a : ,, particle [pa : tik]	"ə" particular [pə'tik julə]
ɔ ,, photography fə' tɔgrkfi	"ə" photograph ['fout ə gra:f]
ɔ_ ,, ward	"ə" backward ['baekwə p]
u ,, to (as in set to) tu :	" but "ə or u in today [ə deis] or [tudei]
ʌ ,, some [s ʌm]	" but "ə in handsome [haen sə m]
Σ: ,, Bert [BΣ: t]	"ə" Herbert [°h Σ: bət]
ei ,, facce [feis]	"ə" preface [pr Σ fəs]
ou ,, most [moust]	"ə" topmost [t'cbm9st]
Σə ,, there [ð Σə]	"ə" there is n't any ð ə rizniΣni]
aia ,, shire [ʃ aia]	"ə" yorkshire [jɔk ʃə]

The weak forms given above occur in conversational speech. But in more formal and careful speech it is customary not to reduce the strong vowels entirely to the neutral position. It is best to utter a vowel lying midway between the strong vowel in question and the neutral vowel, in each of the above examples.

Q.4. Write a short essay on the function and identity of phonemes.

Or

Define and exemplify phoneme.

Or

How many phonemes are there in British English (R.P.) ?

Ans. According to H.A. Gleason "the phoneme is the minimum feature of the expression system of a spoken language by which one thing that may be said is distinguished from any other which might have been said." We find, for instance, that the sound in pill makes it different from other words like kill, hill, sill, till, mill, bill, gill, nill, dill, fill, rill, vile, Lil, chill, will, and Jil, all of which are the same as pill except in the initial sound. Each of these seventeen words has an initial sound different from the initial sound in each of the sixteen others and it is this difference in the initial sound of each of these words which makes it different in meaning from the rest. In other words, p, k, h, s, t, m, b, g, n, d, f, r, v, l, ch, w, and j in these words are meaningful units of sound. Thus a phoneme is seen to be the smallest constrastive linguistic unit which may bring about a change of meaning. By comparing other pairs or sets of words which are minimally different (different only in one sound) from each other it is possible to identify the 24 consonantal phonemes of English and the 20 or 21 vowel phonemes. Two words like bet and pet or get and set which differ only in one phoneme are usually called a minimal pair. Minimal pairs are very useful in identifying the phonemes of the language.

Though phonemes are significant elements of speech in the sense that the use of one or other phoneme in a given position may change the meaning of a word, they are meaningful on a lower level than the morpheme or word of which usually they are a constituent part. Only rarely do single phonemes constitute words in English as in/a:/ (are), /ɔ:/ (awe, or), /ai/ (I, eye), /iə/ (ear), /eə/ (air). Single phonemes can also be used as exclamations or hesitation noises as in /ou/ (oh!) /θ:/ (er) /m/ etc. or for summoning attention as in /ɔi/, or for calling for silence as in /ʃ /. More often, a single phoneme can constitute a morphemic element in a word. For example the /s/ phoneme in kites, kite's can indicate the plural and the possesive forms of kite respectively. Similarly the /z/ in rings can express the plural of ring or the third person singular of the verb ring. Similarly the phoneme /θ/ can be used to indicate the doer of

an action as in writer, derived from the verb write, and to express the comparative degree of adjective as in larger, greater etc. From the examples already cited it is seen that a single phoneme can have several morphemic functions and that a single morpheme, like plurality in a noun can be expressed by different phonems /s/ or /z/. To this extent, we can say that single phonemes are meaningful units at the word level, though generally they function as parts of a word of morpheme consisting of several phonemes. When they are constituent parts of a word the meanings of phonemes are not instrinsic. In other words, the meaning of /s/ in sin is not that it is an /s/ but that, with a following group of phonemes like /in/ it is not the same as pin or tin or kin or any other word with a different initial phoneme, or with no initial phoneme (zero phoneme) as in the case of in.

The phonemes of English, which are based on oppositions and have been given general articulatory labels are negative and abstract concepts, which in actual pronunciation have an infinite number of different relations. In other words it is found that a speaker uses more than one /i/ sound or /t/ sound or /l/ sound depending upon the influence exerted upon theme by their environments or the particular situations of the phoneme. Thus we will find the slight nasalization in the /ae/ in 'man' due to the nasal sound which follows it, while there is no such nasalization in the /ae/ of sat. Similarly the /k/ of king is different from that of cart because of the influence of the front vowel in king and the back vowel in cart. It is also seen that the 'l' which we should pronounce before a vowel is different from the 'l' before a consonant or in the final position in a word. These examples prove that when we speak of a phoneme, we are actually speaking not of a speech sound of a definite organic formation, and definite acoustic quality which is incapable of variation, but of a family of sound to which a general name has been given. The /p/ phoneme, for instance, is not heard as the same sound in pin, supper or sleep, though all these varieties of /p/ are grouped together as one phoneme. These different pronunciations of /p/ are not distinctive enough to serve to change to the meaning of a word. Instead of being treated as different phonemes, they are treated as allophonic variations or allophones of one and the same phoneme. Each of the allophones of a particular phoneme will occur in a predictable and exclusive situation. That is to say, the environments in which we use the two types of 'l' in little are different, and these can never be interchanged. The first (called a clear l) is distinguished from the second (called a dark l) in that the first occurs before vowels while the second occurs before consonants and finally. They are said to be in complementary distribution, each occurring

in a predictable situation where the other is excluded. This is true of all allophones.

It is interesting to note that in certain situations the same sound may be treated as an allophone of two phonemes. For example, it is seen that the nasal consonant preceding the /f/ in infant and comfort happens to be neither an alveolar /n/ nor a bi-labial /m/ but a labio-dental sound /Ɱ/ anticipating the labiodental /f/. It may, with equal propriety, be treated as an allophone of /m/ or /p/ in both words, inspite of the difference in spelling.

For language study in general, it is both interesting and useful to note the existence of phonemes as it is found that the sounds of a language group themselves into a number of phonemes which are significant units of sound for that language. To record a language phonetically, a knowledge of its phonemes is essential. If the language is to be written down unambiguously we should have as many symbols as there are phonemes in the language. For the native speaker of a language it is not necessary to assign symbol for each allophonic variant of phoneme, as he will use the subsidiary members of each phoneme in their right places quite naturally. English speakers, for instance will know where to use the dark l and where to use the clear l though separate symbols are not assigned for them. One who wants to study the phonetics of English should follow the habits of English people in the use of the subsidiary members of each phoneme and repeat them in his own pronunciation.

In studying foreign languages a knowledge of the phoneme theory is very important. The sounds which are grouped into one phoneme in one language may belong to two or more phonemes in another. Unless a speaker is aware of this fact, he will be misled in the pronunciation of a foreign language by keeping to the phoneme usage of his own language. We often see this in the pronunciation of English people who wrongly bring the /s/ of 'saree' and the initial consonant in the name 'Santa' under the /s/ phoneme of English, though according to Malayalam phoneme usage, the two sounds belong to two different phonemes. An intimate knowledge of the ordinary usage in the matter of English phonetics is very important for the student of English pronunciation. First of all he must have a finely trained ear which can distinguish the various subsidiary members of the different phonemes and can note how they are used by English speakers. If he is unaware of the existence of phonemes as opposed to speech sounds, he may use a wrong member of a phoneme and believe he is using the correct English sound. Very frequently foreign speakers of English are found using a clear l in place of a dark l because of ignorance of the phoneme usage in English.

Q.5. What are the phonemes of English and how are they represented visually ?

Or

Define and exemplify phoneme.

Or

How many morphemes are there in British English (R.P.) ?

Ans. The smallest segment of a sound that can change one word into another, like k, p, b, h in the words kill, pill, bill, hill is called a phoneme. In other words a phoneme is a range of sound which is perceived by the native speakers of a language as a single, distinctive unit and functions as such in the stream of speech. The phonemes or distinctive sequences of sounds are only very imperfectly represented in alphabetic writing in which the same phoneme may be represented by a variety of spellings. But before proceeding to speak about the visual representation of English phonemes we have to describe them phonetically and label them properly. In describing the phonemes as sounds, we can make use of three classification which are complementary. That is to say we can have an articulatory, acoustic or auditory, description of the phonemes. An articulatory description of a phoneme specifies the mechanism which generates the sound. An acoustic description is concerned with the physical nature of the sound itself while an auditory description is based on the impression which the sound makes on a human hearer.

Articulatory descriptions are, in essence, the recipes for making particular sounds and are based on the fact that human beings make use of a limited mechanism to produce the sounds of speech. The human vocal apparatus consists of relatively few parts which can be brought together or held apart or otherwise modified to take on various shapes. This provides a flexible system capable of producing a large variety of different sounds. In every language, however the number of significant sound discriminations (phonemes) is limited and they can be described phonetically by analysing the mechanism of speech.

English sounds are all produced by modifying air as it is driven out from the lungs under pressure from the contraction of the abdominal muscles and the muscles between the ribs. In passing out to the opening of the mouth or nose the air moves over what is called the vocal tract. During the emission of air the vocal tract can be changed in shape and size and obstacle can be created in it in different ways. All these will affect the quality of the sounds produced. The first place where an obstacle can be created in the vocal tract in the larynx (the bump called Adam's apple which indicates the voice-box). In the larynx there is a slit called the glottis whose size and shape are controlled by two bands of muscles

called the vocal chords. It is through this slit that the air exhaled from the lungs in articulation has to pass. The vocal chords can be pressed together tightly to close off the passage of air and then the cartilages to which they are attached are held apart. As the air passes through these we have sounds which are whispered. On the other hand while the vocal bands are held wide apart the stream of air can pass freely and noiselessly through the open glottis. In such a case sounds can be produced by obstructions being placed in the path of the exhaled air at some point in the vocal tract above the larynx. Sounds produced like this, vocal bands held apart, are called voiceless sounds.

It is also possible to tighten the vocal bands to such a degree that the air passing through the glottis will cause them to open and close rapidly and periodically. The periodic pulsation of the air stream resulting from this is called voicing. It causes a good many of the sounds of speech to become audible. Voicing actually proceeds a sounds wave which is capable of being modified in a variety of ways in the vocal tract above the larynx. The air stream which passes though the glottis, with or without voicing, next enters the pharynx which opens into the mouth or nasal cavities. At the entrance to the nasal cavity is a flexible flap known as the velum. When it is raised the air is prevented from flowing into the nasal cavity and when it is lowered the air can pass through it. In producing most of the sounds of English the velum is raised so that air is forced out through the mouth. But in a few sounds, called the nasal, the mouth passage in completely closed and the air stream is let out through the nose. With the help of the elaborate muscles which constitute and control the tongue, the lower jaw and pharynx the shapes and relative sizes of the cavities of the pharynx and the mouth can be modified continuously during articulation. The nature of the sound coming out of the vocal tract depends on two kinds of modification in the tract, namely resonance and obstruence. The quick opening and closing of the glottis results in voicing and it causes the moving air stream to pulsate in a complex fashion. According to the modification in the size and shape of the vocal tract above the larynx, the character of these pulsation is also modified by a phenomenon known as resonance. The sounds which are characterised by their resonance, the special way in which the vocal tract shapes the voiced air stream, are called resonants. The other class of sounds known as obstruents are produced when obstructions are placed in the way of air stream as it passes out. This interference with the air moving under pressure will cause noise or nonperiodic sound. Thus obstruents are different from resonants in being noisy instead of being resonant.

Resonants can be çlassified into those in which the air stream is maximally impeded in the mouth, or partially impeded or minimally impeded on in its way out. When there is maximal impedence, nasals are produced, when there is partial impedence, liquids are produced and when there is minimal impedence, vocoids or vowels are produced. When the air stream is voiced in the larynx and prevented from escaping through mouth and the velum is relaxed and lowered, a nasal resonant will be produced. If the mouth passage is closed by bringing the lips together, the bilabial nasal (m) as in 'man' is produced. If the oral passage is closed by bringing the apex or tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge behind the upper row of teeth, the apical nasal (n) as in 'new' is produced. If the oral opening is closed by pressing the dorsum or back of the tongue against the velum or dorsal (Ŋ) is produced, as at the end of 'King'. If the oral opening is not closed when the velum is lowered and relaxed, nasalized vowels like those in French will be produced. These would be indicated by placing a tidle (—) over the oral sound. With voicing accompanied by the closing of the nasal passage two classes of resonants can be produced. The oral passage can be so shaped as to force the air stream to take an indirect route to the outside and this result in the production of sounds known as liquids. When the oral passage is so shaped as to give a direct route of escape to the air stream, sounds known as vocoids or vowel are produced. When the middle part of the oral passage is closed off by raising the middle of the tongue so as to touch the roof of the mouth and the air stream is allowed free passage around the sides, a liquid sound known as a lateral (l) is produced. If the central closure is made only with the tip of the tongue a light (l) as in 'late' is produced, but if the closure is made by touching the uvula against the back of the tongue a dark (l) as at the end of 'call' is produced. In case the air stream is partially obstructed by an obstacle placed in the central line of the mouth passage, but not in such a way as to create a non-periodic interruption an (r) phoneme is produced, as at the beginning of 'rail' or the middle of 'ferry' or the end of 'hear'. In some dialects of English, however the (r) in the last example is not heard. It is possible to produce a variety of (r) sounds or central liquids as they are called. For example, the tip of the tongue may be allowed to vibrate rapidly against the alveolar ridge or the uvula may be allowed to vibrate rapidly against the back of the tongue, or, the tip, centre, or back of the tongue may be raised so as to come into close proximity with the roof of the mouth. But for practical purposes the symbol (r) may be used for all these variants.

Vocoids or vowels are usually described in terms of the positions of the tongue, lips and velum. It has, however, been already established

that the acoustic and auditory quality of the vocoids is based not on the position of the articulating parts, but on the total shape of the entire vocal tract. In each of the vocoids the air stream escapes unimpeded to the mouth opening. In classifying these vocoids three factors have to be considered. These include the position of the tongue in determining the shape of the oral pharyngeal cavity, the relative size of the opening of the lips and the width of the air stream as determined by the pharyngeal and lingual shaping. According to the height and forward position of the tongue with respect to the roof of the mouth we have high, mid or low vowels and front, central and back vowels respectively. According to the size of the lip aperture we have rounded and unsounded vowels. The rounded vowels are produced when the lips remain relatively closed while the unrounded ones are produced when the lips are relatively open. The third classification of vowels is based on the relative narrowness or width of the air stream which is emitted during articulation. When the air stream is narrow we have tense vocoids and when it is wide we have slack or open vocoids.

Now we have twenty vowel phonemes in English including twelve pure vowels illustrating the various classifications described above and eight diphthongs or combinations of two vowels which together form one syllable. A diphthong is different from a pure vowel in that its quality gradually changes from that of one vowel towards that of another. While pure vowels are divided into long ones and short ones, diphthongs are all to be considered as long, since the pronunciation of the diphthong takes as much time as a long vowel.

The pure vowels are visually represented by their phonetic symbols each phoneme being always indicated by one and the same symbol, whatever the spellings used in different words for the particular sound may be. The vowel in 'bee' for instance is expressed by the symbol [i:] Other words containing the same vowel phoneme are feel, heed, sweet, beat, knead, cede, eve, key, quay, foetus, people, feat, sea etc. The same sound is heard in the second syllable of machine, deceit etc. In each of these instances we have a vowel phoneme which may be described as a long, tense, high, unrounded, front vowel. Next we may take the vowel in 'bit', which phonetically represented as [i]. It is also high, front vowel but is not long and it is not tense like the [i:]. In ordinary English orthography this vowel is spelt in the middle of a word and y at the end. Words like lip, slip, bid, did, fit, sick, big, nib, fist, mill, contain this vowel. Their spelling for this sound is seen in pity, hymn, lyric etc. Other words containing this phoneme are foreign (second syllable), coffee (second syllable), women (1st and 2nd syllables), pretty, busy, build etc.

The third vowel to be considered is the one in 'let', 'bed' etc. It is also an unrounded mid front vowel which is slack. The phonetic symbol for this is [e]. The difference between the second vowel [i] described above and the third one [e] can be clearly understood by pronouncing pairs of words like pip-pep, sit-set, big-Peg, till-tel, in each of which the first word contains an [i] and the second an [e]. The fourth vowel to be considered is the vowel in pan, back etc. It is an unrounded, low, slack, front, vowel and its phonetic symbol is [ae]. Though this sound is usually spelt a, it is spelt as in words like plait, plaid. By repeating pairs of words like rap-rep, fad-fed, sad-said, gnat-net, lag-leg, one can notice the difference between d [ae] and [e]. The difference between [i] and [ae] can be noted by repeating the pairs of words like fig-fag, sing-sang, lip-lap etc. The fifth vowel [a:] is contained in 'ask' and 'farm'. It is not a front vowel, the tongue position in its articulation being much nearer the low back than the front. The lips, being neither rounded nor spread, assume a neutral position and hence the vowel is said to be neutral. The sounds [ae] and [a:] differ in two respects, namely, quantity and quality. The former is short while the latter is long. [ae] is a front vowel while (a:) is a back vowel. The (a:) sound is heard in bard, market (1st syllable) father, arm, lard, tar, dark, flask, dance, bath, pass, chaff, command (second syllable). The spelling for the (a:) sound is often -ar as in farm, market, arm, far etc., where the r is not sounded. And a spelling before f, s, th, or n, followed by a consonant also usually indicates the (a:) sound. Less common spellings for the sound are seen in laugh, aunt, between, heart, and moustache (second syllable). The difference between (ae) and (a:) will be clearly understood if one repeats the pairs of words cap-carp, chat-chart, lack-lark, ham-harm, bad-bard, stack-stark, mash-marsh, cad-card etc. A sixth English vowel is heard in words like box and hot. It is a short, back, slack, rounded, mid vowel and its phonetic symbol is (ɔ). How it is different from the fifth-vowel [a:] can be understood by repeating the pairs of words like bark-bob, dart-dot, shark-shock, sharp-shop, clerk-clock, mask-mosque, guard-god, mark-mock, last-lost. Very much like the sixth vowel, but not identical in quality with it is the long (ɔ:) heard in lord and fall. Many people however do not distinguish between the vowels in cod and cord, and those in shots and shorts. The vowel sound [ɔ] is indicated by several spellings like or, (stork, sword) oar (soar, board) oa (board), our (pour, course) and oor (door, floor). The spelling alk also occurs together in certain words containing the [ɔ:] sound, as in stalk, walk, balk, talk. Aw and au spellings are used for the sound in law, draw, haul etc. Other spellings are seen in all, hall, fought, caught etc. The difference between the vowel sounds [ɔ] and [ɔ:] can be

understood by comparing the words in the following pairs : pod-poured, pond-pawned, cock-cork, sod-sword, cot-court, hock-hawk etc. An eighth English vowel [u] is heard in good. It is a short, slack, high, rounded back vowel. It is heard in words like wood, foot, took, bull, wool, could, hood, should, put, cook, hook etc. The next English vowel to be considered is [u:] as in soon, food, too, etc. It is a tense, long high, back vowel and is most commonly spelt was in boot. Other spellings are indicated by group, you, through, rude, blue, fruit, juice, sluice; sleuth, view etc. The next vowel to be considered is [ʌ] which is heard in but, bud, much etc. It is a short, tense, neutral, central vowel. We can get the quality of the vowel [ʌ] by pronouncing something like an [a:] which made short while the jaw is prevented from being too open. The o and ou spellings are most commonly used for this sound as in son, come, tough, colour, monkey, worry, month etc. Less common spellings are seen in 'blood', 'two-pence' (pronounced/tʌpenz/) and 'does'. The eleventh English vowel [e:] is heard in herb, bird, church, word, curb, pert etc. It is a long central, neutral, tense vowel. It has mainly three spellings, -er, -ir and -ur, as in terse, bird and burn. Other spellings are seen in word, work, worm, earth, yearn, learn, rehearse. But heart and hearth do not contain this vowel phoneme. The twelfth and last of the pure English vowels is [ə] It is a very nearly a short version of [ə:] but there is one important difference between the two sounds in that the short vowels may be used in unstressed syllables. While other vowels may be used in stressed and unstressed positions, a peculiar characteristic of this vowel is that it has no stress. Its whole nature is the result of its lack of stress. It is a short, slack, unrounded, central vowel. Other vowels, when pronounced without stress tend to become more obscure and assume the quality of [ə]. For example, the first syllable of the noun convert (kənvə: t) loses its stress when the word is used as a verb and then the vowel in the first syllable is changed to [ə], so that it is pronounced (kənvə: t). When the (ə) occur at the beginning or in the middle of a word or group of words with no pause between them it is usually very weak and short, as can be seen from the following examples.

Success	[sək'ses]
Suppress	[sə'pres]
Commit	[kə'mit]
to come	[təkʌm]
the book	[ð əbuk]

But [ə] is more open and tends to be a little longer when occurring at the end of a word, as in linger (liŊe), number (nʌmbə).

Besides the pure vowels described above English speech makes use of eight dipthongs (literally, double sounds) each of which begins in, in one vowel and ends in another. In phonetic script a dipthong is indicated by writing the symbols for the intial and final positions for the articulation of the "double vowel'. The first part of the diphthong in high [hai] contains a vowel between [ae] and [a:] and for this the symbol used is (a). So the diphthong in "high' is given the symbol (ai), (uə) comparing different diphthongs like (ei), (ai) (and) (iə), (uə) we see that in the first pair the front part of the tongue is raised to the position for (i) and in the second it assumes a neutral or central position as for (ə). This movement in the first instance is upwards a closer position of the tongue and hence such diphthongs are called closing diphthongs. But in dipthongs like (uə) the movement of the tongue is towards the centre of the mouth. Such diphthongs are known as centring dipthongs. The diphthong (ei) as in hay, (ou) as in slow, (ai) as in high, (au) as in how (oi) as in boy are closing dipthongs while (iə) as in hear, beer and (eə) as in hair, where, and (us) as in tour, pure are examples of centring ones. There is a tendency in present day English for the (ou)diphthong to be replaced by u so that "go' is now often pronounced as (gəu).

Next to the vocoid resonants we have to consider the semi vocoid resonants [h], [j], [w] which have some of the characteristics of the vocoids while differing in significant ways from the vocoids proper. [h] is like a vocoid except in being forced through the larynx with more pressure than for ordinary voicing. The extra pressure results in some friction which makes the sound a laryngeal or pharyngeal fricative. The phoneme [j] is a resonant produced while the tongue moves to or from a high front position. The relative rapidity of this movement is what distinguishes [j] from [i]. In the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) the symbol [j] is used for this semi-vowel. Exactly similar to the relationship between [j] and [i] is that between [w] and [u].

After the Resonants, the second broad division of English phonemes are the obstruents. These are classified into those which are made with maximal, minimal and partial interruption of the air stream in the oral cavity. Obstruents may be either voiced or voiceless. Maximally interrupted sounds are those which are called stops, partially interrupted ones are those called affricates, while obstruents with minimal interruption of the air stream is stopped completely by some obstruction placed in its path at various points of articulation. The stoppage can be made by placing the two lips together so that a bilabial stop [p] when voiceless, and [b] when voiced, is produced. We can have apical stop [t] when voiceless and [d] when voiced. by placing the apex of the tongue

against the roof of the mouth between the back of the teeth and the back of the hard palate. Similarly we can have a back stop or dorsal stop [k] when voiceless and [g] when voiced.

Obstruents with a minimal interruption of the air stream are called spirants or fricatives. These are made when the air under pressure is forced through a small opening. When the opening is between the lower lip and the upper teeth labiodental (lip-teeth) fricatives, voiceless [f] and voiced [v] are produced. When the opening is between the tip of the tongue and the edges of the teeth interdental fricatives, voiceless [θ] and voiced [ð] as in ether, other, are produced. If a very narrow short opening is made between the tip of the tongue and the base of the upper teeth, the sibilants, voiceless [s] and voiced [z] are produced. When a wider and longer opening is made between a larger portion of the front of the tongue and palate and the air stream is directed against the lower teeth, the sibilants, voiceless [f] and the voiced [ʒ] as in sheep and measure heard.

Obstruents produced with a partial interruption of the air stream are called affricates. These are produced by momentarily stopping the air stream and quickly releasing it as a fricative. The English affricates are formed by stopping the air as for [t] and [d] and then releasing it as for [ʃ] and [ʒ] thus resulting in the voice-less [tʃ] and the voiced [dʒ] as in church, ridge.

We have already described above the various phonemes of English and represented them visually by means of symbols used by the International Phonetic Association. These phonemes correspond to musical notes and the phonemic inventory of a language may be compared to a musical scale. Just as a song is composed of a particular, characteristic sequence of notes, so every linguistic unit is composed of a particular characteristic sequence of phonemes. We have to remember that just as a musical note is different from the visual mark used to transcribe it so different languages have different phoneme inventories just as different cultures employ different musical scales.

Q.6 Write an essay on Supra-segmental phonemes (stress, pitch and intonation). ***Or***

Write short notes on : (a) junctions, (b) rising tone, (c) falling tone, (c) the rising falling tone, (c) intonation.

Ans. Stress, pitch and intonation play a very important part in English pronunciation as these accentual features making use of quality, quantity, pitch and stress variations can be the most effective means of rendering a syllable more prominent. Stress, pitch and intonation which

are characteristic of English speech are together known by the term supra-segmental phonemes as they are meaningful lements in the spoken language. Any utterance, which consists of one or more words, is made up of not only a changing pattern of sounds of differing length and quality but also of differing stress and pitch. This is evident from the fact that in spoken English some syllables stand out above the others and some are very weakly or indistinctly pronounced, while there is frequent rise and fall in the pitch of the voice. Variations of accent can be noticed in English both in single words and in connected speech, and these account for its rhythmic patterns.

By the term stress we mean the extra force of intensity with which we articulate a particular syllable, which, consequently, is heard by others with extra loudness. Two kinds of stress may be noticed in speech. First of all there is the natural stress of words which is quite an objective feature of English and is independent of the setting in which they occur. Secondly there is the stressing of words in phrases and sentences so that they stand out from the others. The two kinds of stress may be treated separately.

Words stress in English is such that the message conveyed by a polysyllabic English word is transmitted not only by the phonemes which compose it but also by the accentual pattern of the word, consisting of the varying,contrastive prominence of its syllables. It is a well- known fact that some words in English have different functions according to whether they are given in a fully stressed or weakly stressed pronunciation. "One', "that', and "some' are examples of such words. There are also many other words, mostly disyllabic ones, which have an end-stress when treated as verbs and a forward-stress when treated as nouns or adjective. The following list gives examples of such words in which the stressed syllables are italicized :

Noun or adjective	Verb
*Con*tract	Con*tract*
*Trans*port	Trans*port*
*Im*port	Im*port*
*Con*trasts	Con*trasts*
*ab*sent	ab*sent*
*Trans*fer	trans*fer*
*pre*sent	pre*sent*
*Re*cord	Re*cord*
*con*duct	con*duct*
*pro*duce	pro*duce*
*In*sult	In*sult*

*Es*cort	Es*cort*
*Fre*quent	Fre*quent*
*Per*mit	Pe*rmit*
*Abs*tract	Abs*tract*

It may be said that the accentual pattern of English words is fixed. so that the main stress falls normally always on the same syllable of a given word or a word used in particular sense (that is either as a verb or as a noun or adjective as in the above examples). Accent in English is free, in the sense that it is not tied to a particular place in all words alike, unlike the accent which is fixed to the penultimate syllable in Polish or to the first syllable in Czech. In polysyllabic words there may be many degrees of accentuation as there are syllables. But for practical purposes it is enough to note only three degrees. These are syllables with primary accent, syllables with secondary accent and unaccented syllables. In the first of these, we have the strong or primary stress, full vowel value, and a potential change of pitch direction. Primary stress is also called tonic stress as it decides the tone of what we say. Such syllables with tonic stress are marked with sign before the syllable as in /'ae bs nt/. In the second, indicated by as in ('plae, ka :d) (placard), we have rhythmic stress which is marked by qualitative or quantitative prominence and often with a change of pitch level. In the third, namely unaccented syllables, which are weakly uttered, there is often obscuration of a vowel to / /I/or/ U/.

Connected speech also has its variation of stress. The significant vowel in a syllable which decides the tone of what we have to say is called the unclear syllable. It is this unclear syllable, pronounced with strong stress, which decides the meaning of what we say in a sentence. In the two sentences, "I met you *this* morning" and I met you this *morning*, the sounds remain the same but the difference in meaning lies in the strong stress on "this' in the first one and on "morning,' in the second one. This proves that, as in single words, stress is phonemic in sentences too. Examining sentence stress we find that in all normal sentences we give stress (full sound value) to the significant words only. These include nouns, demonstratives, adjectives, most adverbs and verbs, (including auxiliaries also in some instances). The other words, mostly grammatical words, which join together the lexical or full ones which carry meaning, are usually unstressed and have special weak forms to be used in connected speech. This is evident from comparing a sentence containing many "full" words with a sentence containing many empty or grammatical words as shown below :—

1. The "Daniel Jones Pronouncing Dictionary' lists most versions of modern English pronunciation (10 out of 12 words stressed).
2. It would have been better not to have paid for it before you had received it (4 out of 16 words stressed).

The ability to move smoothly and steadily from one stress to the next, fitting in the unstressed syllables between them is the basis of a good, natural English accent.

Pitch Change and Intonation : The meaning of an English utterance is based not only on its change in sound pattern and contrasting stress patterns but also on the varying pitches of the voice. Variations in the rise and fall of the pitch of the voice as well as in stress and tone can produce varieties of the voice as which are the most efficient means of conveying information about the speaker's attitude and emotional changes. The same utterance in varying tones, pitches and stresses can yield different meanings. The significant import is mainly conveyed by the rise or the fall in tune on the nuclear syllable. These variations of tune can basically be divided into the rising intonation, the falling intonation and the level one as shown below :

N	N	H
Rising	Falling	Level

The rising intonation is heard in most of the questions which require the "yes" or "no' answer. The rising tune in, "Are you coming with me?" can be indicated as below :

Here the stress is on

"with me' (not with someone else)

Similarly the rising tune in "Have you done your exercise ?" can be represented by the pattern.

Statements can be converted into questions by using the rising tune. "You bought this house ?" said with a rising tune can express surprise or delight on the part of the speaker. A variety of other emotions can also be expressed by the rising tune and on social occasions the conversation would be more dominated by the rising tune than the falling one.

The *falling* tune is one in which the nuclear syllable has a falling intonation expressing something final or conclusive. Questions which require a statement as answer are asked in this tune. Most wh-question normally have the falling tune Eg. : When did you come here ?

But at the same time it must be remembered that all these questions can also be asked in the rising tune when politeness or encouragement is

meant to be indicated when one talks to a child or to a strange or to a guest. Statements and reports which lack the personal element are made in the falling time.

These basic tunes (rising and falling ones) can be combined and are combined in longer sentences. Eg. :

If you want to see me, come early.

(Rise and Fall)

Different from the above Rise and Fall pattern is the Fall and Rise one which the first part of sentence is rather abrupt and said in the falling tune. But this is modified into politeness in the second part. Eg. Do it.

f

Do it now, if you don't mind.

In recounting an incident to a friend it is usual to use a series of rising tunes and finally a falling one. This is seen in the sentence

I got up in the morning, had a hurried meal, dressed and rushed to work.

The Fall-Rise pattern where there is a fall in tone which is followed by a rise is a combination of the contrastive, assertive effect of the fall with the various aspects of the rise (appealing, continuative or introductory) within one syllable. The glide from one to the other is in the same pitch, but a little above or below the pitch of the whole utterance. In a sentence like "yes, I agree" the pitch is the same and the Fall-Rise pattern within the syllable may be indicated as shown below :

....

Yes, I agree V V

....

It has already been pointed out that the meaning of a word may sometimes rely on the situation of the accent expressed mainly in terms of pitch and that the same sequence of phonemes, as in "import' may be used as a verb and as a noun according to the variation in intonation. Similarly it is seen that words like anyone, anybody, anything following a negative may have different meanings according to varying pitch patterns. Thus the same sentence "I cannot marry anybody", with differing intonations can express two different ideas. The first is "I can marry no one". The second is "I cannot marry just anybody", implying that there are certain things I expect to find in the man I marry. From this we can see how important a part intonation plays in the pronunciation of English.

Q.7 Write short notes on:— Allophones, Linking r and intrusive r, Juncture, Phoneme clusters, Vowel-like consonants, Nasal release of plosives, Affricates.

Ans. Allophones : The phonemes of English which have been given general articulatory labels like /p/, /b/, /l/, /m/ /or/ /a/, /e/, /o/are abstract conception, based on opposition and are not definite, unvarying speech sounds. In actual pronunciation, each of the English phonemes has an infinite number of different realisation depending on the speech habits of different users of the language and the differing phonemic environments in which it occurs in a word or sentence. As Ida Ward puts it, each phoneme stands for a family of speech sounds which are identified by the native speakers of the language as belonging to the same phoneme for which a common label is used. For instance the kind of /l/ sound which is used before a vowel as in "allophones' is different from the /l/ which is used before a consonant, as in "cultivate' or finally as in "pull'. These different articulations, however, are not distinctive enough to be able to serve to change the meaning of a word. The first kind of l (occurring before vowels) is regarded as a clear /l/ and the other two are considered as examples of dark /l/. All these are said to be allophonic variants of allophones of the /l/ phoneme which are in complementary distribution, each occurring in a predictable and exclusive situation. Similarly the /k/ in king and cart, are allophones of the /k/ phoneme, the sound in king being influenced by the front vowel, and that in cart being influenced by the back vowel which immediately follows.

Sometimes the same sound may come to be treated as an allophone of two phonemes, showing that where oppositions do not occcur, phonemes may coalesce in their realisations and become neutralised. For example the nasal consonant preceding the f in infant and comfort tends to be neither an alveolar, nor a bilabial consonant, but a labio-dental one, /ɱ/, anticipating the f sound which is labio-dental. It may be treated as an allophone of /m/ or /n/ though in the first word this sound is arbitrarily treated as an /n/ and in the second as an /m/ according to the spelling.

Linking r and intrusive r : When we study the features of connected speech closely, it is seen that in words where a spelling r is not pronounced in the isolate form, it is often heard before an initial vowel in the following word. Thus the word "here" (pronounced in isolation as (hiə) is heard as (hiər) in the combination " here and now" (hiər ənd nau). Other examples are father and mother, (fa:ð er ənd mʌ ðə) more and more, (mɔ: r ənd mɔ :). In all these examples we have a linking r because of the vowel following immediately as the initial sound of the next word. Similarly we find the linking r on the addition of a morpheme with initial vowel to a word where the r is not pronounced in isolation. Thus we have hear and hearing. (hiəhiəriŋ).Some people while pronouncing a final /ə, ɔ: or a:/. often use a linking r though there

is no justification for it in the spelling and the practice is generally condemned. For example, The Rajah of become (ð əra:dʒərəv) the idea of becomes (ð ə idier əv) and law institute become (lɔ:rinstitju:t) This r which intrudes in a sequence of other sounds is called the intrusive r and it is often used even by educated speakers especially after /e/.

Juncture : It is seen that in connected speech there will often be phonemic variations at word boundaries and special liaison forms so that the phonemic shape of a word becomes considerably altered by its environment. However, a word or morpheme may retain features of its isolate pronunciation when it occurs within an utterance. We may come across a similar sequence of phonemes capable of being interpreted in one or two ways according to the situation of the word (morpheme) boundary. This juncture between two words can be indicated by phonetic cues. Thus the phonemic sequence /əiskri:m/ may mean either " I scream; or "ice-cream" according to whether the juncture occurs before or after /s/ If the juncture occurs before s as in I scream, the word division may be indicated by the relatively long ai (final in a syllable) while in ice-cream the word division may be indicated by the relatively short ai before the syllable final s in ice. Similarly in the phonemic sequence /haustreind/ it is possible to have the juncture before or after the s, as in house trained and how strained. The word division may be indicated by the relatively short au before s syllable final /s/ and the devoicing of the r after the initial accented /t/ of trained, in house trained. In how strained, where the juncture occurs before the /s/ the word division is indicated by the relatively long au (final in a syllable) and the slightly devoiced r after the syllable initial /st/. Junctural cues, however, are potential and may not always be distinctly present in rapid speech.

Phoneme clusters : A study of English pronunciation will show us that only a very restricted number of the possible combinations of the English phonemes actually occur. For instance, it is seen that long vowels and diphthongs do not normally precede the /ŋ/ phoneme. Similarly /e, ae, ʌ, ɔ, u/ are not seen to occur finally.

Consonant clusters, in the initial and final position, are also very restricted in their occurrence in English speech. t, d,ʒð, z do not combine with other consonants initially, /v/ and /h/ combine only with /j/ (view, hue) while b, d, g, θ, ʃ/ occur only as the first menders of clusters (blue, drink, grass, through, strong, shrink). /r, j, w,/ are seen to occur only in non-initial positions (prize, puny, swarm). Initial clusters of three consonants are seen to consist of an s followed by p, t, or k, and l, r, j, or w (splash, string, skewer, square etc.). Initial sequences like r ð, zw, fs, mh, nd, rw, tl, di, stl, spw are not heard in English and /fθ/ and /zl/ as in phthisis or zloty are rare and occur in learned or foreign words only.

Even if syllabic m, n and l are excluded, there are more numerous combinations of consonants occurring finally in English words, because of the addition of such morphemic inflexional elements as /z, t, d/ (help,

helps, helped) /ks, kst, ksts; ksθ, ksθs/ (fix, fixed, texts, sixth, sixths) lm, lmz, lmd (embalm, embalms, embalmed) /ps,pt,mps, mpst/ (stops, stopped, glimpse, glimpsed) etc. /h,r, j, w/ do not occur finally alone or in clusters, and combinations like hf, nm; l ḋ fp, mpsp are all un English. So also are rt and rst.

This restriction of sequential possibilities means that the succession of phonemes in an English work is predetermined to a certain extent by what precedes. For example an inital /ð/ must always be followed by a vowel and a consonant must follow /e, ae, ʌ, ɔ, u/.

Vowel-like consonants : Some of the English speech sounds included in the category of consonants are seen to share phonetic or distributional qualities with vowels: The consonants /j/ and /w/ being equivalent to the vowels /i/ and /u/are often called semi-vowels and are quite vowel-like in their articulation in that they do not involve a complete closure of the vocal organs or cause any audible friction. At the same time they are like consonants in that they do not occur centrally in the syllable. Also in certain situations, as in tune (tju:n) and quite (kwait) they tend to be voiceless and fricative or are phonetically consonantal. /r/ too very often has an articulation like that of a vowel and in some dialects functions as a syllable centre as in water (wɔ: tr). But this phoneme is generally marginal in the syllable and sometimes voiceless & fricative as in try, cry/ trai/ krai/.

The phonemes, /m, n, l/ are characterised by the total or partial closure typical of consonantal articulations, but they are also voiced non-fricative continuants, frequently having the central syllabic function of vowels, as in rhythm, sudden /riθm, sʌdn/. Hence they also are vowel-like consonants functioning both as vowels and consonants.

Nasal release of plosives : It is seen that when a plosive consonant like /p, b,t,d/ is followed by the homorganic nasal sound (m,n) which is either syllabic or occurring initially in a following syllable the release of air is not effected through the oral closure which remains closed, but through the nasal passage which is opened by the lowering of the soft-palate for the nasal consonant. Examples of this nasal release can be heard in topmost (/p/+/m/), happen (haepm) submerge (b+m) putney (/+/n/) gladness (/d/+/n/).

The same kind of nasal release takes place when the plosive and homorganic consonants occur at word boundaries as in slap me,rub more, not, red nose. The plosives k,g are not affected by this kind of nasal release because the homorganic nasal sound /Ŋ/does not occur initially in English words.

When the nasal consonant which follows a plosive sound is not homorganic, a different kind of nasal release takes place. In such cases the plosive is not normally released until the articulatory movements

required for producing the nasal consonants have already been accomplished. In other words, the lowering of the soft palate and the second, oral closure precede the plosive release in such cases. This illustrated by the pronunciation of nut meg, big nose, big money, black market, sleep now etc.

Affricates is a term which is used to denote a concept which is primarily of phonetic importance. As Prof. A.C. Gimson puts it, "Any plosive, whose release stage is performed so slowly that considerable friction occurs approximately at the point where the plosive stop is made, may be called affricative". An affricate is distinguished from a fricative proper in that the friction present in the former is of shorter duration. In English words, the plosives /t,d/ are seen to have this kind of affrication in /t ʃ, d ʒ, tr, dr, ts, dz, tθ, dθ.)

These compound sounds may be considered, from a functional or distributional point of view, either as single phonemes or as sequences of two phonemes. In deciding how they are to be treated we have to consider the distribution of the sound complex in syllable initial,syllable final, word medial (with close-knit stop and fricative elements) and word medial or final, (with stop final and fricative initial) in adjacent syllables or morphemes. As a sound complex which has general distribution and shows an opposition between close-knit medial realisations and disjunct realizations (with the elements in separate syllables of morphemes) each of the affricates /tʃ/, /d ʒ/, tr/, /dr/ may be treated as single, complex phonemes.The following words illustrate the close-knit and disjunct realizations of these affricates.

	Close-knit			Disjunct
	initial	**final**	**medial**	
/tʃ/	chin	batch	catcher	light ship
/d ʒ/	June	zedge	aged	——
/tr/	train	—	attract	foot rest
/dr/	dream	—	tawdry	hand rail

The combinations /ts/, dz/ occur only very rarely in closeknit medial situations, while /tθ/, /dθ/ occur only finally in a few words. In present day English pronunciation, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /tr/, /dr/ are treated as complex phonetic but single phonemic entities.

The acoustic features of affricates are seen to be those appropriate to stops and fricatives. The transition between the preceding vowel and the stop and the explosive onset of the friction in the release stage have to be noted. In the case of tʃ, dʒ there may be a brief intervening friction of the alveolar /s,z/ type before the/ʃʒ/ elements proper.

Q.8 Consider whether a reform of English spelling is desirable.

Ans. Though speech has always been our primary means of transmitting language, communication of ideas through visual signals also plays an important part in our relations with our fellow-beings.

Visual medial of communication include not only the written form of language, but also such organised systems of codes or symbols like the Mores code, traffic lights and road sign. But we will confine our attention to writing here as it is the form nearest to spoken language in its structure. In written English we find that language is represented by a linear sequence of visual signs which show the words of a sentence as separate entities and employ the letters of the alphabet or groups of letters to represent the constituent sounds of the words. It is distinguished from the spoken language in having a more or less standardised form which permits only a few variations in spelling here and there. Learning the written form of the languages is one of the early steps in a child's education and it soon learns to recognise the visual shapes of words even when they occur in differing forms and styles which may vary as much among individual writers as the spoken form does in sound. But it must be remembered that handwriting which is not legible is as ineffective as a vehicle for language as seriously defective speech.

Though in the representation of numbers, mathematical signs and certain abbreviations, we employ symbolic writing (a sign being used to represent a total word form) the spelling of English can be said to be basically alphabetic. In other words, the constituent phonemes of word in English are represented by letters of the alphabet. But the conventional use of the Latin alphabet in English writing is by no means consistent or unambiguous. English spelling does not mirror English speech in the sense that the significant sounds of the spoken language are represented by the visual symbols with a one-to-one relationship. Children who are learning to write are often bewildered when they find that what they bear as one sound in the spoken language assumes different forms when it comes to writing, especially when they have to deal with the weak forms of words. They soon come to the conclusion that written English has its complex, established letter patterns having only a rough resemblance to the constituent sounds. That is to say, they have a kind of picture writing in English. Modern English spelling is highly sophisticated and it is a separate expression of the language, with its own rules and conventions.

The spelling of English had been more or less phonetic at the time when the Latin alphabet was first used for writing English more than 13 centuries ago. Even in the time of Chaucer there was a very good correspondence between English spelling and pronunciation. But during the last six centuries the spoken form of the language has changed considerably while there has not been any corresponding changes in spelling. It is true that as early as the 16th century there was a movement to reform the spelling of English so that there should be grea[ter] correspondence between the spoken and the written forms of the languag[e]. The English people were urged by reformers like Hart "to write as we speak", not to abuse one letter for another and to choose and use new

letters for those sounds for which there are no letters in the English alphabet. But nothing came of it and by the 18th century English spelling had become finally fixed mainly through the appearance of the dictionaries of Johnson, Sheridan and Walker. Many words which had been pronounced differently had now come to be pronounced alike, though their spellings continued to be different, as in case of meet, meat, see, sea, etc. Some letters continued to be retained in the spelling, though they were no longer sounded as the "gh" in light, night etc.

Roughly speaking, the spelling of Modern English represents the speech of four or five hundred years ago. We now have varying spellings for one and the same phoneme, (as many as eight spellings for /i:/ and varying sounds for one and the same letter of the alphabet, (half a dozen sounds for the letter O) and many letters remain silent. The same combination of letters can represent different sounds (like the-th in this, think and Thomas). Still people in general have such great respect for the time-honoured spelling of English that there is often a feeling that it is more correct to pronounce words as they are spelt. The traditional pronunciations of such words as victuals, forehead and Lewisham have already been altered according to the spelling.

Inspite of all the inconsistencies in the relationship between English spelling and pronunciation, it may yet be claimed that English spelling is still basically phonemic. At the same time there is still no provision for representing in writing certain features of spoken English. The language still lacks the means of representing in writing the weak vowel /ə/, the unaccented forms of grammatical words, the accentual pattern of words and phrases and the intonation. Written English, therefore, remains a very imperfect representation of the spoken form. However, it can be argued that there is no absolute necessity for a strict correspondence between the sound patterns of speech and the visual patterns used in writing. It is seen that in the spoken language many neutralisations are possible on the phonemic and morphemic levels without loss of intelligibility in any given situation. In the written language we find that these signals which are neutralised in speech are kept separate visually and thus confusion and ambiguity are avoided. Also in writing we distinguish visually those sequences which in connected speech may have only very slight sound contrasts, and we indicate juncture clearly. Prof. Gimson illustrates this by comparing sound sequences like a border-liner-aboard a liner, summer, dresses-some addresses, some are mine-some of mine etc. In house -trained, and how strained the written language is able to indicate juncture more clearly than the spoken one where the two sequences of sounds are very much alike. Writing has the advantage over speech in being able to distinguish between homophones by the different spellings employed as meat-meet, rein-rain-reign, write-right-rite-wright etc. This should, in some measure, compensate for the lack of information regarding such features as intonation and accentuation which we have to put up within written English.

In the last four centuries much thought has been given to spelling reform. Most reformers have been in favour of retaining the Roman alphabet as a basis, though new letter shapes have been suggested. But it has hardly ever been pointed out that the needs of a phonetic spelling and one which tries to represent the elements of language may not be the same. At present few people would insist on a strictly phonetic form for English. If we wanted writing to mirror speech, the spelling of English should be based on the principles of the International Phonetic Alphabet, with its Roman-based letters, phonemes and its various marks to lessen our speed in reading and writing English unless we quickly learn to ignore much of the written cues. As English is spoken in widely different forms by different speakers all over the world, each would have to spell the language in his own way if a strictly phonetic rendering of the words were attempted in writing. This would be far more complicating the idiosyncracies of cursive writing which already exist. Hence it is clear that it is better to have the present conventional and institutionalised system of writing which can serve all users of English alike. While thinking of any reform of the visual medium of transmission of ideas in English, we should, first of all, decide upon the level of linguistic elements which is to be represented. The sentence, the morpheme or the phoneme can be the basic unit for establishing a writing system. Of these the sentence as the basic unit of visual language is not desirable as it is incapable of expressing anything more than crude and cumbersome ideas. A writing system based on the smallest constituent elements of language, viz. the phonemes also has its disadvantages. If a reformed system of writing like the International Phonetic Association's Alphabet were to supersede the conventional English orthography, it would have to be revised at regular intervals so as to match the inevitable changes in pronunciation. Thus it is clear that the two extreme linguistic levels like that of the sentence and the phoneme are not desirable as bases for a reform of English spelling. The word or morpheme is theoretically a more satisfactory unit for the visual representation of language. But if we were to write English using one symbol for one morpheme it would be quite uneconomic, as we would have to learn innumerable characters. In reforming English spelling we will have to make use of a system taking advantage of the phonemic levels of analysis. English writing already had the advantage of expressing the morphemic differences between right, write and rite which are all pronounced alike. The plural ending, mostly written-s. is pronounced /s, z, iz/. But the same phonemic /s/ in rat's and rats' is visually and morphemically distinguished from each other. Also we find that the past tense morpheme, usually spelt-ed as in walked hugged, rated, has the phonemic realisations /t, d, id/. These features of English spelling like the differentiation of certain morphemes which are identical is phonemic shape, and the morphemic identity of others of differing phonemic realisation are visual assets which would

be lacking in a purely phonological writing. It is desirable that alphabetic differences should be retained between words like sight, site, and cite and that a conventional alphabetic form should be devised to distinguish between the /s/ in cats, dogs etc. and that new letters or signs should be invented for certain morphemic affixes. It is also desirable to extend morphemic writing and reading cues to those cases where Modern English spelling is ambiguous. For example, "read', whether used for the past tense, (red) or the present [ri :d] is now spelt alike and this should be changed. Rationalisation of the present writing system is particularly important in the case of monosyllabic morphemes which may be spelt alike but pronounced differently. It is also desirable that the grammatical words most often used in a running text in unstressed positions should be indicated by abbreviated alphabetic signs or new characters.

In conclusion it may be pointed out that the writing system of English, which by accident is inconsistently enough,is largely "morphemic in nature and alphabetic in expression" would benefit by a greater degree of rationalisation. It would certainly be foolish to give up the alphabetic style of writing. It has the advantage of being quite economical in terms of the number of characters needed, though it is desirable to have a few more letters added to the English alphabet to indicate certain phonemes. The writing system of English is flexible in that it does not slavishly adhere to a one phoneme-one letter principle and allows considerable complexity of linear patterning. As Prof. Gimson puts it "if an efficient system of visual communication is to be achieved, linguistic considerations on a higher level than the phonological should be taken into account."

Q. 9 Write an essay on the difference between the traditional academic approach to grammar and the modern one.

Or

What is grammar ? Give one traditional, one structural and one generative definition of grammar.

Ans. As N.R. Cattell has pointed out in his very useful book "The New English Grammar" a great revolution has taken place in the last thirty or forty years in the academic approach to grammar. People brought up in the old tradition had come to associate with grammar something of the awesome infallibility of the Bible. Rules of grammar were tedious and inflexible and the learning and following of them rendered people as dull as the teachers of grammar or the writers of grammar book. Right and wrong in grammar were as distinct as black and white in the old tradition, but it is no longer felt to be so. Linguists have begun to examine every aspect of language more critically and as a result of this, many of them now refuse to apply the terms right and wrong to language use. Instead of being a dead subject, properly confined to dull writers of

grammar books, grammar has now come to be treated as an interesting branch of the lively young science of linguistics which is becoming more popular as a subject of study in the modern world.

The traditional notion was that the authors of grammar books were to be absolutely trusted and it had never occurred to people to question their authority. But when we try to look for the sources from which the fact of the conventional English grammar books have been derived, we find them in earlier grammarians of the 18th century who have been guided by the influence of logic and Latin grammar. According to these 18th century scholars, problems of language could be solved by considering logic though no modern writer on language would agree with such a view. Depending on logic these grammarians laid down the rule that words like perfect, square, round etc. could not have any comparative degree, as a thing which is already perfect cannot become more perfect and a thing which is already round cannot become more round. Modern scholars refuse to agree with this decree laid down by the earlier grammarians because we know from practical experience that language which is meant to be expressive often defies logic. Spoken language, being very fast in utterance, does not always pause to check logical errors as when a teacher asks his pupil to make his circle rounder or when somebody is told to draw a squarer figure. The truth is that in actual speech we no longer hesitate over the use of an illogical expression so long as it is colourful and serves the purpose by being easily understood or becoming more expressive.

Coming to the other influence, namely Latin grammar, which guided the older grammarians, we find that the decisions regarding the rules for English were often arrived at by a transfer of the rules for Latin. This procedure was the result of the view held by the 18th century scholars that there was a theoretical structure common to all languages and hence it was right to apply the rules of Latin to English. We find them talking about accusative and dative cases which have no real application to Modern English, about gender which is merely a part of the meaning of English nouns and about rules asserting that the verb "to be'must take the same case after it as before, while in English it is more correct to say " It is me" instead of "It is I".

The rules of traditional grammar are becoming less and less infallible in the critical eyes of modern students, especially because there was poor justification for many of them in the first place. Rules like the conventional ones about the use of shall and will, for instance, are seen to be based on the whims of particular scholars, for whose judgments we have little respect.

The modern writer C.C. Fries has condemned traditional grammar since it belonged to a "per-scientific era". Grammar now according to him, follows a scientific method, with a theoretical basis of enquiry, like

other subjects and the results of this have been spectacular. One very important result of the application of scientific methods to language has been a change in aim on the part of teachers of grammar. The old grammarians had made it their business *to prescribe what sort of language ought to be used.* The modern grammarians, on the other hand, are concerned with *describing the language which is used.* In other words, traditional grammar is based on the *prescriptive approach* while modern grammar is based on the *descriptive approach.* While one lays down rules as to how the language should be used, the other merely attempts to describe how language is actually being used. According to traditional grammar, "I will" should he used to express will or determination on the part of the speaker.But modern grammar, observing how people actually use "I will", does not insist on this, but allows the use of "I will" as an expression of simple futurity, which it often is, in the speech of many people. Similarly, while the old grammarians prescribe strict rules regarding the use of nouns like council, committee etc. in the plural or the singular sense, modern grammar approves of the use of such nouns as both singular and plural. Some people brought up in the old tradition are not quite comfortable about this new approach. They feel that it will encourage a kind of waywardness in language as it may lead to the notion that anything can pass, these days. But it must be made clear that such fears are unfounded. All that the modern approach to grammar leads to is the view that more than one form may be acceptable in language and that correctness is often "a matter of conforming to language fashions around you". If one conforms to these, his way of speaking and writing will be acceptable to others, and if he does not, others will object to them. This is the reason why N.R. Cattell declares that 'in a sense, you are your own best grammar book." Some people who have a better ear for language than others can easily confirm to the language fashions around them. Others who are less fortunate in this respect, cannot trust their ear. Instruction, such as is given in a modern grammar book, draws the attention of such people to general patterns of language as it is spoken and written by other members of the community and thus helps their awareness of it.

While old grammarians centered their attention mostly on written language, and took for exercises sentences which were often taken from older literature, virtually ignoring the contemporary spoken language, most modern grammarians think that instruction should primarily be based on the patterns of spoken English. In their enthusiasm for concentrating on the spoken language modern scholars at first went to the other extreme, almost ignoring written language. Now scholars have come to redress the balance, having realised that the written language possesses a kind of importance which is not usually possessed by speech. It is now universally established that speech and writing each has an importance of a different sort and that mastery of the language involves mastery of both.

As a result of more scientific approach to grammar, people now a days have become dissatisfied with the old definition of parts of speech which have been more critically examined than before. Two generations ago grammar had been the kind of study where progress or change was neither likely nor necessary. The modern scientific approach to language studies has shaken the very foundations of the old system and no part of the structure has escaped its impact.

The definitions of the parts of speech which have long been accepted provide the best examples of what has happened. Traditionally a verb was a "doing, being or having word." This definition does not take into consideration verbs like run, wash, light etc. which are used both as nouns and verbs. It also ignores the meanings of words like reaction, subsistence and exclusion which we would expect to be verbs, rather than nouns as they are traditionally called. Another definition of a verb given by an older grammarian, namely J.C.Nesfield is that it is "a word used for saying something about something else." Evidently this also is no satisfactory definition. The vague idea, which Nesfield probably had in mind, is better expressed by another conventional grammarian who says that "the verb is that part of speech by means of which we make an assertion or ask a question." But we find that there are many situations in which questions can be asked and statements can be made without using a verb, though it may be said that in each of these some suitable verb or idea of one is understood. Similarly, when we examine the conventional definitions of nouns we find that these do not help to separate nouns from adjectives which form a different part of speech. We have to conclude that the conventional defintion of each part of speech is faulty because the old grammarians have tried to classify words according to two different criteria instead of sticking to one of them. Some parts of speech are defined according to the meanings of the words and others according to their function. All attempts to find out water-tight definitions for the parts of speech by conventional methods have failed and hence grammarians in the immediate past have concentrated on other criteria for the classification of words. This has resulted in the classification based on the positions that words could occupy in sentence structure. This change in emphasis has resulted in many interesting discoveries which have provided the modern student with a more satisfactory grammar than the traditional one.

Q.10 Write an essay, with suitable illustrations, on notions of correctness and appropriateness in the use of English.

Ans. Before speaking about notions of correctness and appropriateness in the use of English at the present day, it must be remembered that in the last few decades there has been a great revolution in our traditional attitude to language studies. In the past the attitude to linguistic usage was always prescriptive. The writers of text books on the use of language were concerned with making rules about how people

ought to speak and write. Instead of finding out how people actually spoke or wrote, they prescribed rules about language, mostly based on the grammar of the classical language and their own ideas of logic. Instead of describing the fact about language, they laid down rules for its use. With the advent of the modern science of "Linguistics", our notions of correctness and appropriateness in the use of language have come to be based, not on the rules of traditional grammar, but upon the facts about the language as we know it to be at present.

Coming to analyse the study of language objectively, we realise that many people's notions of correctness in English usage are based on some "transcendental" standard, existing only in their own imagination or that of some grammarians, with their great respect for Latin grammar, held certain forms as correct in English, though these have had nothing to do with actual English usages. At the same time they condemned as 'incorrect' many usages which are in keeping with the genius of the English language and which, as a result, have subsequently come to be accepted as 'correct'. While the older grammarians condemned the sentence "It is me" as incorrect, because Latin would have the nominative "I" instead of "me" in such a sentence modern English is actually used. The notion of correctness in the past was very often based not on the actual usage one came across among speakers of English but on reason, analogy, etymology or behaviour of an inflected language like latin, which has little resemblance to Modern English. Modern linguistics has done away with all this and has attempted to describe as appropriate or acceptable those usages which agree with the facts about English as we use it at present. The linguist has taught us that the grammarian of a language, instead of making the rules of that language, only codifies the use of the people speaking the language. If he tries to prescribe rules, he will be overruled by the weight of majority usage, as has happened in English. People no longer use English according to the rules of traditional English grammar, and are aware of it, though some people, still clinging to the old tradition, are unnecessarily worried about it. Inspite of all the advances made by linguistic science, in the past hundred years or so, an unrealistic attitude to language, and artificial or archaic rules for its use are still found among some users of English. Ignorance and inertia, pedantry and snobbery have been cited as the reasons for this. Whatever the reasons may be, the fact is that the traditional attitude and conventional rules still influence the teaching of English to some extent.

This is illustrated by the fact that many people object to the use of 'aggravate' in the sense of 'annoy' saying that originally the word meant "to add weight to" so they consider it etymologically incorrect to use the word in this new sense, ignoring the fact, that if etymology were to be considered, we should use 'style' to mean 'pointed instrument', silly to mean 'happy' or 'blessed' and nice to mean : 'silly" . Inspite of all objections, 'aggravate' in the sense of 'annoy' is already established in Standard English today. The word hysterical, etymologically is related

o the Greek word for womb . Hence if etymology were to be considered, hysterical should be taken to mean pertaining to the womb, and it cannot be used as an adjective to qualify a noun in the masculine gender, though Modern English permits such expressions as "hysterical young man".

The "transcendental" notion of correctness is applied by some people to grammatical terms like prepositions and they assert that it is wrong to end a sentence with a preposition. But as admitted by older grammarians like Lowth more than two centuries ago, this use of the preposition at the end of a sentence "is an idiom which the English language is strongly inclined to". Against the authority of Dryden who started the fuss over this usage, we have that of good writers of English like Shakespeare, Bacon, Dickens, Lawrence and others, in support of this usage. Dryden who was brought up on the grammatical principles of Mulcaster, Greaves and Hewes, was imitating them in basing his English usage on Latin in which prepositions very rarely come at the end of sentences. But we have already come to feel that it is not desirable to impose the habits of an inflected language like Latin on a largely uninflected one like English. Hence in Modern English the simple dogmatic prohibition of the use of a preposition at the end of a sentence is no longer acceptable. The sentence which ends with a prepositions, though less formal than the one which does not end with preposition, is no less correct or acceptable.

In Modern English usage we find that the use of linguistic forms is assessed, more in terms of their suitability for particular occasions, than in terms of some arbitrary standard of correctness. Reverence for Latin usage still makes some people object to such usages as "Who did you go to see?' and "I don't know who you are speaking of", though these are already widely established in educated use. It is true that we still have the relatively formal constructions employing the objective case instead of 'who', as in "whom did you go to see ?" or "I don't know whom you are speaking of." Instead of saying that either usage is correct or incorrect, we would now say that both are acceptable and that there are certain situations where one is more acceptable than the other.

Again, the rule regarding correctness or appropriateness are not so strictly followed now as in the past, in matters relating to concord, particularly in number. We often hear such sentences as "If everybody minded their own business, the world be a much better place", though the correct construction, according to traditional grammar should be "If everybody minded his or her own business..." Though expressions like the first are not quite logical, we have to admit that there is often more convention that logic in language use. The modern trend is to consider both the expressions used above as acceptable. One is left to choose whichever seems likely to do best in a given context.

Noah Webster, an unusually enlightened eighteenth century grammarian, accused Lowth of having "criticised away more phrases of good English, than he corrected of bad". Later grammarians too have been guilty of a similar crime in having given credence to usages which do not adequately match our linguistic experience while condemning usages which are actually in existence. Thus they have tried to falsify the linguistic facts of life, which have ultimately asserted themselves, compelling the grammarians to accept as correct the usages which are approved of by the public.

This, however, does not mean that we have no standards of correctness or appropriateness left, in the use of English. We still associate correctness with educated usage, since such usage is more widely acceptable, more widely communicable and more cohesive than any kind of uneducated usage(I never had no mind etc). But to condemn expressions like vaccum-cleaner and bathing pool, saying that nobody wants to clean a vaccum and that a pool cannot bathe, is not realistic or educated. It is equally unrealistic to claim that usages like averse to, it is me, quite a number are incorrect, when these are expressions in actual use. We are now faced with two unalterable facts regarding English usage. One is that within the whole realm of the language, the area of disputed usage is very small. The other is that disputed usages do exist, providing us with forms which it is no use regretting and distinctions which we should wisely consider.

As for text books, instead of prescribing rules for usage, they should reflect the present day attitude to correctness in linguistic matters and should deal with English in realistic and not in an arbitrary way. At best text books can only be guides to language. Our knowledge of English usage should be based, not on any text-book, but on our participation in the actual situations in which English is used unselfconsciously. To use Webster's words we would learn English usage best from"that excellent school the world".

Q.11 Write an essay on varieties of contemporary English and the ideal of a Standard English for all users of the language.

Ans. The English language at present is spoken as the mother tongue not only in Great Britain but also in Canada, the United States, Australia, New Zealand and many other areas of the world. Englishmen, no longer being the only people using the language, have to accept the fact that other people of the world, using the language as their mother tongue, have a right to use it in their own way and that this results in may varieties of English, which the Englishman has no right to look down upon. In the words of Randolph Quirk:—"There is no copyright in the use of English and we cannot demand of users in other countries that they pay royalties obeisance as though the language carried a British patent." At present we find many people involved in the use of English.

Hence there is no meaning in claiming that the English of one area is more correct than the English of another. There is no single standard of correctness or appropriateness in the use of English as far as speakers all over the world are concerned. Americans may complain of the clipped and affected speech of Great Britain while the British accuse the Americans of using vague and slangy expressions. Similarly the Englishman may criticise Australian English as "uneducated" or "cockney" in its standard. There would be no room for such criticism or complaints if people were to remember that each major society using English has its own standards and more and more standards are likely to be recognised. These standards are determined by the society, according to the society's structure, and depending on the purpose for which English is used.

A sheep farmer in Australia ordering a sheep-dipping, an English scientist addressing his colleagues, an Indian politician speaking to the members of his party, a lawyer arguing a case in a federal court in U.S.A, a German transacting business with an Englishman, and an African member addressing the United Nations Assembly are examples, of the range of users of English and the different uses of which the language is put by them. A language which has such a wide range of uses and users, naturally cannot confine itself to one standard of correctness or appropriateness. Scientific and learned English, the English used for religious purposes, the English used in courts of law, the English of tourism, trade, commerce, and industry, the English international air transport and of foreign printing and publishing give us examples of the varied used of English, each of which has its own standards of what is appropriate. It is seen that every particular or restricted use of English is, to some extent, reflected by the form of the language used for the purpose.

The problem confronting the native speaker of English is not that of being merely understood by his fellows. The use of language and particularly English, involves social complications which have to be understood. The use of language is governed, not only by personal and individual taste, but also by the existence of a certain amount of agreement about preferred usage, and the awareness of some kind of 'standard' against which all deviations are measured. Just as we conform to the social conventions of our community in table manners and the choice of clothes, we must use "the accepted forms of English which are used by our community. In the last generation more attention was paid to 'class dialects' which sharply divided the commons and the aristocracy. Even now, when class distinctions have been mostly levelled down, we still have our social groups, and language is used as a badge or barrier, depending on the way we view it. Apart from specialised terms used by miners, sailors, doctors and members of other trades and professions, there are all kinds of standards of correctness which we are obliged to

conform to. While some kinds of English invite downright condemnation, some others(including the annual crop of O.K Words) confer some kind of prestige on the speaker.

As far as social aspects of language are concerned, the speakers of English fall into three distinct categories, the assured, the anxious and the indifferent. The 'assured'are the people whose education and up-bringing assure them of speaking an unimpeachable form of English. Bulwer Lytton who declared,"I am free to confess that I don't know grammar"and graciously asked his companion, "Lady Blessington, do you know grammar?"represents this class of speakers. Speaking with the same careless ease, and equally unperturbed about their grammar are the "indifferent", including the Mrs.Mops of their world, who would tell people who do not like their speech, that they "can lump it".Between these two extremes, we have the class described as 'anxious'. They are always engaged in trying to suppress what they think to be bad English and cultivating what they believe to be good English. A more developed and mature awareness of the language and how it works, is the only way in which we can have more and more assured speakers of English and fewer of the 'anxious' and the 'indifferent'.,

Though these various kinds of English which are determined by differences in occupation, education, etc. on the part of the users, have differences in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, they still have much in common. We have the first sign of a 'Standard English' in the matter of spelling which with the exception of trifling differences between British and American spellings, is the same for all users of English. The user of English in Great Britain, Canada, The U.S.A, Australia and other parts of the world can easily communicate with one another because the language has a standard way of writing, known to and accepted by all.

But the situation is different when we compare the pronunciations of English in different parts of the world where it is used as the mother tongue, or as a second language. The spelling of English, being neutral to the vast differences which can be heard in spoken English allows to understand the written word,however different in pronunciation in different countries and in different social classes may be. As it is natural for us to have the same speech sound as those of our immediate circle, each community of people speaking English comes to have its own standards in the matter of pronunciation often different from those of other communities. Thus regional, occupational and social classes are distinguished by their speech forms, and educated people usually adopt standard speech form which enjoys an additional prestige. In Great Britain this is "Received pronunciation"associated with the public schools and universities and the B.B.C.A pronunciation within this range is considered as the ideal to be aimed at wherever English is taught as a foreign language. But so far as the English-speaking countries are

concerned this'Received pronunciation'enjoys the prestige of a standard only in England Educated Scotchmen, Irishmen, Americans, Australians and New Zealanders have their own different ideas of a 'Standard' of English. Even in England it is now very difficult to speak of a standard in pronunciation,because modern social conditions have levelled most of the distinctions between dialectical pronunciations, and sociological changes have reduced the prestige of Received Pronunciation.

Coming to vocabulary, we find that varieties of English spoken by different classes of people may differ sharply in their regional as well as stylistic features. Vocabulary can be formal, colloquial or slang whether the English is American, Australian, or British. We use colloquial, or informal or familiar words as perfectly polite or admissible in informal conversation., Slang terms, however, are not appropriate for informal conversation unless the speakers are on the intimate terms. Slang, which has been called "the ordinary man's poetry"takes sometime to find its way into "Standard English", by way of Colloquial Speech . However, in the matter of a standard vocabulary we find greater agreement in the English-speaking world, than in the matter of pronunciation.

Looking at grammar in relation to the varieties of contemporary English, we find that many dialectal forms, used by uneducated users of English employ substandard grammar and colloquial grammar. Colloquial grammatical forms which often occur in speech, except when one wants to be very formal, are usually avoided in print. Though in colloquial grammmar, the pronoun 'they' may follow an indefinite pronoun like"Everyone"it is avoided in careful writing. But we find this colloquialism now gradually becoming accepted in writing too. The greater part of English grammar is seen to be common to all dialects, educational levels and styles, though there are grammatical features which distinguish one dialect of British English from another or which distinguish British from American or Australian usage.

It is only sensible that we make the term 'Standard English' to cover the grammar which is common to all kinds of English as well as grammar used in the speech and writing of educated users of English. Standard English, as a norm, is a complex function of vocabulary grammar and transmission, most clearly established in one of the means of transmission, viz, spelling and least clearly in the other means of transmission, namely, pronunciation. Basically Standard English is an ideal which cannot be perfectly realised. It is means of expression which we seek when trying to communicate beyond our immediate community with the members of the wider community of the nation or with English-speakers as a whole. Inspite of the small divergences between the Standards of English produced by the different wider communities, there is so much agreement among these that a newspaper printed in Canada or U.S.A. or Australia or India can be read and understood easily by the speakers of English in any of the other countries of the world.

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But the situation is different when we compare the pronunciations of English in different parts of the world where it is used as the mother tongue, or as a second language. The spelling of English, being neutral to the vast differences which can be heard in spoken English allows to understand the written word,however different in pronunciation in different countries and in different social classes may be. As it is natural for us to have the same speech sound as those of our immediate circle, each community of people speaking English comes to have its own standards in the matter of pronunciation often different from those of other communities. Thus regional, occupational and social classes are distinguished by their speech forms, and educated people usually adopt standard speech form which enjoys an additional prestige. In Great Britain this is "Received pronunciation"associated with the public schools and universities and the B.B.C.A pronunciation within this range is considered as the ideal to be aimed at wherever English is taught as a foreign language. But so far as the English-speaking countries are

concerned this'Received pronunciation'enjoys the prestige of a standard only in England Educated Scotchmen, Irishmen, Americans, Australians and New Zealanders have their own different ideas of a 'Standard' of English. Even in England it is now very difficult to speak of a standard in pronunciation,because modern social conditions have levelled most of the distinctions between dialectical pronunciations, and sociological changes have reduced the prestige of Received Pronunciation.

Coming to vocabulary, we find that varieties of English spoken by different classes of people may differ sharply in their regional as well as stylistic features. Vocabulary can be formal, colloquial or slang whether the English is American, Australian, or British. We use colloquial, or informal or familiar words as perfectly polite or admissible in informal conversation., Slang terms, however, are not appropriate for informal conversation unless the speakers are on the intimate terms. Slang, which has been called "the ordinary man's poetry"takes sometime to find its way into "Standard English", by way of Colloquial Speech . However, in the matter of a standard vocabulary we find greater agreement in the English-speaking world, than in the matter of pronunciation.

Looking at grammar in relation to the varieties of contemporary English, we find that many dialectal forms, used by uneducated users of English employ substandard grammar and colloquial grammar. Colloquial grammatical forms which often occur in speech, except when one wants to be very formal, are usually avoided in print. Though in colloquial grammmar, the pronoun 'they' may follow an indefinite pronoun like"Everyone"it is avoided in careful writing. But we find this colloquialism now gradually becoming accepted in writing too. The greater part of English grammar is seen to be common to all dialects, educational levels and styles, though there are grammatical features which distinguish one dialect of British English from another or which distinguish British from American or Australian usage.

It is only sensible that we make the term 'Standard English' to cover the grammar which is common to all kinds of English as well as grammar used in the speech and writing of educated users of English. Standard English, as a norm, is a complex function of vocabulary grammar and transmission, most clearly established in one of the means of transmission, viz, spelling and least clearly in the other means of transmission, namely, pronunciation. Basically Standard English is an ideal which cannot be perfectly realised. It is means of expression which we seek when trying to communicate beyond our immediate community with the members of the wider community of the nation or with English-speakers as a whole. Inspite of the small divergences between the Standards of English produced by the different wider communities, there is so much agreement among these that a newspaper printed in Canada or U.S.A. or Australia or India can be read and understood easily by the speakers of English in any of the other countries of the world.

Q.12 Make a brief survey of the modern attempts to arrive at a more satisfactory grammar than the traditional one.

Ans. Modern linguists have long been quite dissatisfied with the traditional approach to the study of grammar which has been described by C. C. Fries as belonging to 'a prescientific era.' In his book, "The structure of English"published in 1952, Fries has attempted to build up a grammar by extracting the natural structure of language from innumerable sentences taken out of spoken English and analysed for the purposes. Here he has made it his principle to start from the beginning as if conventional grammar did not exist. He has discarded all notions learned from traditional grammar even refusing to use the conventional names for the parts of speech. His intention was to approach the study of English without preconceptions, thus evolving a description of the language from his observation of it . In this process, the word classes that he discovered were to be labelled according to numbers and letters of the alphabet. At about the same time as Fries was working on his new grammar, the same sort of theoretical position was being arrived at by other scholars like Zelling Harris who published his more rigidly academic "Methods in structural linguistics" in 1951 . Fries's approach has been popularly developed by other writers like Paul Roberts and this has made it more available to people interested in the subject. Though it took sometime for a knowledge of Fries's ideas to spread among teachers of English and for their application in the classroom,his work had a tremendous importance and many of the lessons in it are still worth learning.

Fries's idea was to describe the language as it was heard in the community around him, because he was committed to the view that spoken language is of primary importance. He tape recorded many telephone conversations of people who did not know that their conversations were being recorded and therefore spoke naturally. While describing this language as it was being used Fries never assumed the position of one who prescribed what people ought to say.

First of all, his plan was to allot words to the same category it they could fill the same set of positions in English sentences like those he had already recorded. Thus he made use of a completely different basis for classification from the traditional one which depended on meaning and function.

To decide what kind of words could occur in given positions in a sentence Fries made use of a few test sentences, where other words than the given ones were substituted in each of the positions in these sentences. Thus, taking a sentence like "The concert was good", he tried to find out the words which could be substituted for 'concert'without changing the structure of the sentence. Each substitutions was submitted to the judgement of native speakers of the language to decide whether the structure of the first position,which left the structure of the sentence the

same, were classed together as class I and included coffee, food, taste, container etc. Following the same technique in different positions, Fries isolated 4 main classes of words which were numbered 1,2,3,4. These classes of words were found to be similar to the conventional categories, namely nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, though they are rather different in content and very much so in conception. In addition to these 4 classes which Fries labelled as Form classes, he found out 15 other classes of words by following the same procedure. These were called Function classes and labelled A to O. These words operated mainly to convey signals of structure. There is one great difference between Form classes and Function classes of words. The four Form classes include thousands of words to which new words are continually added, so that they are technically called open classes. Function classes, on the other hand, remain closed classes containing a limited number of words to which new words are hardly ever added. According to Fries's calculation there are only 154 words in the 15 Function classes together.

While conventional grammar deals with eight word classes (the parts of speech)structural grammar as evolved by Fries distinguished 19 of them. Though other grammarians who tried approaches have arrived at slightly different, results, on the whole, there is general agreement among these studies of structural grammar to which Fries had led the way.

The process of substitution adopted by Fries to arrive at his classification of words is now used by practically all modern grammarians. The sentence is shown to be a sequence of words each of which represents a whole class. Hence each of the words in a sentence can be replaced by a number of other words of the same class as shown in the following diagram :

Her	very	sincere	efforts	failed
The	highly	contagious	disease	spread
The	more	outstanding	feature	disappeared
His	rather	poor	condition	improved
The	less	ones	ones	succumbed

The words which can replace 'her' in the 1st sentence are grouped with it to form one class, those which can replace 'very' will be grouped together into another class, and so on till we have the substitutions for all the five words grouped into five classes. It is often seen that the group of words which can replace one another in one position will also be interchangeable in other position in English sentences so that a word class of this kind becomes a group and words which can fill the same set of positions as each other. Grammarians following this structural type of grammar which has been very popular till recently have given up Fries's

scrupulous avoidance of the terminology of conventional grammar. They use the more familiar names like noun, verb, etc. though the concepts are somewhat changed and they have to invent more names while keeping the traditional ones as they always have more word classes than the conventional eight. But to them a word is a noun, not because it is the name of a thing, person or place but because it is capable of filling a certain set of positions in the sentence patterns of English.

Now we have to make a distinction between a grammatically well formed sentence and a semantically satisfactory one. In other words, to make sense out of a group of words, the ordering of the words according to the established pattern of our English sentence is not enough. For instance a group of words the "The angry rock quickly ate the tall river" does not make any sense though each of the words can be replaced by others belonging to the respective classes to form a sentence which make sense, as in "The hungry child quietly ate the big loaf." Hence when we say that there is a sentence pattern for English, consisting of Noun+Verb, it does not mean that any English noun can be combined with any verb to make a sentence, but that every noun, can be combined with some verbs and every verb with some nouns to make meaningful. This is applicable to the whole range of grammatical patterns.

We find that sense is conveyed not merely by the dictionary meaning words but also by their arrangments in patterns. Instead of being a mere linear string of words, a sentence is seen to be a sequence of words grouped in a particular way. These groupings are very important in conveying the sense intended and ambiguities often arise when the groupings are not clear. For instance in a phrase like "an old advocates's name-plate" it is not clear whether we mean the name plate of an advocate who is old or the old name plate of an advocate. If we want to express the first meaning the groupings of the words can be the following :

an old advocate's/name-plate

We have, at the bottom of the diagram on the next page the largest pair of brackets which show that the immediate constituents of the whole sentence are "many young boys in this state" and "are found playing hockey daily."

By looking at the line above we see that the immediate constituents of "Many young boys in this state" are "Many young boys" and "in this state." It is possible to divide each of these constituents further. 'Many young boys' is divided into "Many" and "young boys" and 'in this state' is divided into "in" and "this state". 'Young boys' can be divided into "young" and "boys" and "this state" can be divided into 'this and 'state'. Thus in this sentence every word is ultimately divided off from every other word. But because of this we should not be misled into thinking that every word or sequence of words is a constituent of something else. "Boys in Kerela are" and "playing hockey everyday" are not constituents of anything. We have to understand that the constituent groupings in a sentence are made in a way which implies our intuitive knowledge regarding the construction of a sentence.

In giving the second meaning, the groupings should be changed to "an old/advocate's name-plate." Similarly in a sentence like "The work will be appreciated by the Indians who are artistic", we can have the following pair of groupings :

The work will be appreciated by the Indians/who are artistic.
The work will be appreciated by/the Indians who are artistic.

These groupings of words in a sentence are called its constituents. Beginning with a two word sentence, the simplest form that we can have in English, it is possible to multiply the constituents till we have a whole heirarchy of groupings as in the examples below :

Boys						Play				
Boys			here			Play			hockey	
Many	boys		in	Kerala		are		playing	hockey	daily
Many	Young	boys	in	this	state	are	found	playing	hockey	daily.

From the diagram below which is based on a system of pairs of immediate constituent which are marked off by right angled brackets placed back to back we can abstract the constituent structure of the last sentence built up from the original two word one.

Many	Young	boys	in	this	state	are	found	playing	hockey	daily
Many	boys		in	Kerala		are		playing	hockey	daily
Boys			here			play			hockey	
Boys						Play				

Fries and other grammarian following in his steps in trying to work out a grammar based on positions, have always been careful to take constituent structure into account. They have been aware of the fact that constituents are manifestations of patterning which enters into the making of a sentence and introduces order where there would otherwise be confusion and disorder.

To understand the nature of constituent structure grammar let us begin with the simple sentence "Boys play." We have already seen how, by expanding both constituents we arrive at the longer sentence "Many young boys in this state are found playing hocky daily". I will simplify our description of constituent structure if we begin with expanding only the initial immediate constituent and leave 'play' as a constant second part of each sentence. Thus we will have the sentences.

Boys	play
Boys here	play
Many boys in Kerala	play
Many young boys in this state	play

All the items on the left hand side, as shown in the chart, perform the same function in the structure of the sentence,so that the structure of each of these sentences can be described by the same formula, and this is very important. If we use the term 'nounphrase' to indicate the items on the left hand side, the general pattern of the sentences will be seen to be

Noun-phrase+Verb

Expanding the verb "play" on the above lines and leaving the constituent ""boys" unchanged, we will get a set of sentences as shown below

Boys	play
Boys	play hockey
Boys	are playing hockey daily
Boys	are found playing hockey daily

In the above sentences each of the items on the right hand side performs the same function as the others in the structure of the sentence. Being equivalent constituents in the structure of the sentence, they can be called predicate phrases. Thus the structure of the sentence, in each case, can be brought under the formula :

Noun-phrase+predicate phrase

It is now seen that each of the constituents in a structure, but for the very smallest and very largest, has two aspects namely an external one and an internal one. All the noun phrases in the above sentences are

equivalent items having the same relation to larger structures than themselves. This is their external aspect. At the same time they have varied internal structures which must be analysed differently and this is their internal aspect. All the predicate phrases also are seen to be equivalent constituents having different internal structures.

In the light of the above facts the total description of sentences becomes quite simple. The positions of the various classes of words which constitute a noun phrase can first be described and then the different position where these noun phrases can occur may be studied. Having described the internal structure of noun phrases, all of them may be treated as units and their external roles may be studied.

The internal analysis of a structure like a noun phrase may be done in terms of its constituents. For instance, in the sentence already considered, the noun -phrase ":Many boys in Kerala" can be analysed into a smaller noun phrase, "Many boys" and a prepositional phrase "in Kerala". The noun-phrase "Many boys" can be further divided into the noun "boys" and the determiner "many", while "in Kerala" can be divided into the preposition 'in' and the noun 'Kerala'.

When we analyse the elements of conventional grammar, we find that there was in it some description of constituents, though its classification of words was not made on the basis of positions. Sentences, in traditional grammar, were divided into clauses, (main clauses and subordinate ones) clauses into subjects and predicates and each of these into phrases and so on. To put it the other way, we find that conventional grammar illustrated how a single word occurring in a structure could be replaced by a phrase or a clause performing the same role in the given structure. For example, the sentence :

"She was wearing a "*gold* chain" could be changed into "she was wearing a chain of *gold*" or into "She was wearing a chair *which was made of gold."* thus the adjective, the adjectival phrase and the adjectival clause, italicised in the above sentences could be quoted by the same conventional definition. The same kind of equations were made for adverbs, adverbial phrases, and adverbial clauses as well as nouns, noun phrases and noun clauses, in conventional grammar. In broad details, one could therefore *describe* conventional grammar as a kind of constituent structure grammar. It is true that structural grammarians like Fries have paid more attention to constituent structure and have been more systematic in their study of it, but it is equally true that they have not invented the thing.

Structural linguists devised all kinds of methods to provide a satisfactory constituent analysis which could describe the whole of English sentence structure. Structuralist like Bloomfield, who introduced the system of Immediate Constituent Analysis, and Wells, who improved upon it, believed that meaning would naturally follow structure and was

secondary to it. Their attempt was to show how a structure could be built up by layers of other structures. Their system of Immediate Constituent Analysis breaks up an utterance into its component units and attempts to provide a unified and systematic theory for determining the constituents of a given utterance. The fundamental aim of this method is to analyse each utterance and each constituent into maximally independent sequences. It does not tell us what utterances occur in English, and it is not meant for the production of sentences. It is only an analytical prodedure for discovering the units of the spoken sentences of the lan+guage. The structural linguists who tried various methods to provide a satisfactory constituent analysis, gradually came to realise that the task of describing "English or any other language completely in terms of immediate constituents was very difficult indeed. It was an American linguist, by name, Noam Chomsky who in 1957 finally proved satisfactorily that no language could be completely described in terms of immediate constituents, His epoch-making work 'Syntactic Structures' published in 1957 showed that though the idea of using immediate constituents was not to be rejected, it was not adequate, by itself, to account for the whole of sentence structure. It had to be used in conjunction with some other method, like the transformational grammar used by Chomsky.

Transformational grammar was first expounded in Chomsky's 'Syntactic Structures' (1957) and later revised and changed a little in his "Aspects of the Theory of Syntax' (1965). It may be explained in the simplest terms as follows :— There are certain sentences, in English, having the simplest structures and to them the name Kernel sentences is given. More complex sentences are derived either from one of these or from a sequence of these. The Kernel sentences are of the kind which can be adequately described by constituent structure methods. The more complex sentences which could not be thus described are derived from the Kernels by the application of transformational rules. To be more precise, complex sentences are derived from the structures underlying the Kernel sentences rather than the Kernels themselves. The role of the Kernel sentences can be easily understood by referring to the analogy of a musical work where the total design may be composed of a number of simpler themes, each of these having a structure of its own.

In describing the Kernel sentences in terms of constituent structure and showing how other structures are effected by transformations wrought on the basic structure of these Kernels, Chomsky caused a great change in the aims of grammarians. The aim of the grammarians before Chomsky, including the structuralists, was to provide an analysis of sentence structure. Taking sentences, recorded from the native speakers of English, these grammarians tried to devise scientific procedures for having them analysed into their component parts. In doing this, they were, technically trying to devise a "discovery procedure." That is to say, they were not

only trying to discover the structure of English, by analysing sentences from spoken English but also trying to find out how this structure could be discovered, step by step, from these sentences. Chomsky pointed out that this was an impossible task. He compared the attempt of these grammarians to the demand for a step by step description of how Newton arrived at the theory of gravitation. People are content with knowing that Newton's theory accounts for a lot of facts and are not worried about how he arrived at it. Similarly Chomsky suggested that, instead of worrying about how a description of language could be arrived at, people should accept any description that would fit the facts, whatever the manner in which it was arrived at.

Unlike structural grammar, Chomsky's new grammar is not only transformational but also generative. In other words, it provides a set of rules for generating the sentences of the language. The rules according to him can be arrived at by any means, including intuition. The important thing is that when once they have been formulated, these rules should be tested for validity. In other words, the sentences generated according to these rules must be compared with the actual sentences from spoken language. Chomsky had tried successfully to create rules which would generate a large number of seentences. It is true that a natural language like english will continue to change as long as it continues to be spoken. Hence it is not feasible even for Chomsky's generative grammar to predict exactly the sentences it would contain.

Chomsky is interested not merely in generating the sentence of the spoken language. While generating them he also wants to provide information about their structure, pointing out how different structure are related to each other. Transformational grammar can do this much better than a grammar consisting only of constituent structure rules. But now the aim of arriving at a complete transformation grammar of English or another language is far from fulfilment. As yet we do not have the kind of grammatical rules which will generate all the sentences of English and only these. But since 1957 so much progress has been made in this direction that we can now provide a useful description of English with the help of the new methods. The new grammar provides greater insight into the language and is more interesting than conventional grammar, though unlike the latter it does not claim to give all the answers. Instead of expecting to find in the modern grammar book a ready-made and complete description of english, people should learn to follow with interest the partial knowledge already acquired by the linguists. The science of linguistics is in its infancy and there are large areas of it where our knowledge is very inadequate. This has to be born in mind by anyone who takes up the study of modern English grammar. Instead of thinking of grammar as a closed story we must learn to think of it as an interesting science where much has to be studied and discovered yet. This change in attitude is the result of the work done by Chomsky and others who have followed in his steps.

Q.13 Explain the term I.C. Analysis with suitable examples.

Ans. Before explaining the terms Immediate Constituent Analysis which is the name given to a device adapted by the structural linguists like Fries, Bloomfield, Wells and other to describe English syntax, we should indicate clearly what Immediate Constituents are. In the words of Fries[1] "The predictable responses to language that constitute social cooperation come not from lexical items alone, words as words,. but from structural frames with words as content." As N.R. Cattell has put it[2], "Sense is conveyed not only by the dictionary meanings of words, but also by their arrangement in patterns." Instead of considering a sentence as a linear string of words we should look upon it as a sequence of words grouped in a particular way to convey a particular meaning. The grouping of words in a sentence are called its constituents and we generally have a whole hierarchy of such grouping in a given sentence. It is customary to divide each structure into its main parts which are called its Immediate Constituents and then to divide each of the main constituents into smaller parts called constituents. A two-word sequence like "Dogs bark" which is one of the smallest sentences that we can have in english has for its immediate constituents dogs and bark, but it has no smaller constituents. For each of the Immediate Constituents in the above sentence we can substitute an item consisting of two smaller constituents as in the sentence.

All dogs	bark loudly

Where the Immediate Constituents are shown in the two boxes of the above diagram, as "all dogs" and "bark loudly." Each of the four constituents in the sentence above can be further expanded into a sequence of two smaller constituents so as to give us longer sentences like "All breeds of watch dogs bark loudly at sight of strangers." In this sentence "All breeds of watch dogs" and "bark loudly at sight of strangers" are the Immediate Constituents which can be analysed into smaller constituents till every word is ultimately divided off from every other word. But this does not imply that each sequence of words is a constituent of something else. 'All breeds of" and "loudly at" are not constituents of anything. This means that the constituent groupings of words are made in a way which reflects our intuitive knowledge of the construction of the sentence.

As constituents are manifestations of patterning, the grouping of words in an utterance are very important for understanding the sense intended. Many sentences remain ambiguous because the groupings are not clearly indicated by the sequence of words, particularly in writing. For example, the phrase "an old advocate's name-plate" can either refer to the name plate of an old advocate or the old name-plate of an advocate.

1.C.C.Fries : The Structure of English.

2. N.R.Cattell : Modern English Grammar.

If the meaning intended is the name plate of an old advocate, the groupings should be indicated as "an old advocate's/name-plate."

But if the meaning is 'the old name-plate of an advocate" the groupings should indicated thus : "an old/advocate's name-plate."

To consider another example, the sentence. "The work will be appreciated by the Indians who are artistic", is capable of more than one interpretation. Its meaning depends on the groupings, "The work will be appreciated by/the Indians who are artistic", and "The work will be appreciated by the Indians/who are artistic".

The structural linguists who introduced I.C. Analysis to describe English syntax attempted to show how a structure could be built up by layers of other structure. With this object they analyse each utterance into its component parts. It has been the business of I.C. Analysis to give a unified and systematic theory for determining the constituents of an utterance. Its fundamental aim is to analyse each utterance and each constituent into its maximally independent sequences. Instead of telling us what utterances occur in the language, it tells us what the constituents of a given utterance are. This type of analysis, unlike transformation or generative grammar, does not enable us to generate sentences. It is only an analytical procedure for discovering the units of utterances.

To discover the structure of linguistic Units-sentences or words, we have to divide them into two components of three according to the nature of the utterance (long or short). With a normal utterance a binary division is made. Such divisions, made successively at all levels, beginning with the whole utterance, reveal a hierarchy of structures.

Single words, like long sentences, can be divided into their component parts. The word 'denationalise' can be divided into four parts, including the private affix 'de' the base 'nation' the adjective-forming affix 'al' and the verb-forming affix 'ise'. But the whole word, instead of being considered as the sum of the four parts (de+nation+al+ise) must be considered as something like the more complicated (de+[(nation+al)+ise)]. We have to consider 'denationalise' as a structure having two substructures within it. First there is 'national', which as a structure, combines with ise, and nationalise, which as a structure, combines with de. However complex a structure a word may have within itself, it is treated as a whole when it oparates in a stretch of language larger than the word. We see that despite its apparently linear progression, language contains layer of structure and that each of these layers which has its complex internal structure is treated as a single unit when it enters into the next layer of structural relationship. We can represent by means of a Box diagram how the constituents are hierarchically layered in a sentence as shown below :

The Old man			lives	near the tree		
The old		man	lives	near	the tree	
The	old	man	lives	near	the	tree

The next step is to label the groups and units, describing them in grammatical terms as nouns, verbs, adjectives etc. A labelled I.C. Analysis provides more explanatory insight into the structure of a sentence. It accounts for the similarities between various sequences like 'the old man' and 'the tree' which are similar in structure and are 'substitutable' groups or units having the same label as they belong to the same class. The defect in the method is that a substitution does not always produce the same labels. For example, "near the tree" can be substituted by "there" though the former is a prepositional phrase and the latter an adverb. Even if it is admitted that 'near the tree' is a prepositional phrase functioning as an adverbial, and 'there' is an adverb, we cannot use all adverbs in the place of "near the tree." For instance 'away' or 'in' cannot be substituted for 'near'. Thus the test of substitutabililty is restricted to a great extent. But such a method of substitution can yield a number of structures of a similar type and the device can be used as a teaching method for beginners.

In I.C. Analysis we analyse groups and units on the basis of their privilege of occurence or frequency in the language. All such groups of words having the same privilege of occurrence are mutually substitutable to a great extent. For example 'the man" and 'the tree' have similar structures. Where they occur we can expand them by adding other words, as 'the old man' , "the tall tree" etc., because these enjoy privilege of occurrence. But in place of the utterance, "The old man smokes" we cannot say "the old tree smokes" because the latter has no privilege of occurrence. In such utterances structural correctness alone will not be sufficient. We will have to look into the meaning of the sentence since structural correctness alone cannot always result in meaningful utterances.

One defect of I.C,.Analysis is that it does not satisfactorily analyse question patterns in english. In a question like "Does he come here everyday ?" the analysis has to be discontinuous because 'does' and 'come' which together form the verb are separated and cannot be put together in a box diagram. Thus we get discontinuous immediate constituents and the box diagram of such an utterance give rise to confusion regarding the layers of structures.

Another defect of I.C.Analysis is the structural division of vague statements or phrases which are capable of two or more interpretations. The division of an utterance into structural units and phrases, depends, as we have already seen, on their privilege of occurrence. In an utterance like "Flying planes can be dangerous", there is more than one privilege of occurence, since it can either be analysed into.

"Flying planes/can be dangerous
Flying/planes can be dangerous

The phrase "flying planes" is ambiguous since we are not sure whether it means planes which are flying or the act of flying planes. An I.C. Analysis of this will have to indicate the ambiguity by making two box diagrams. this bring us again to the conclusion that structure alone cannot give us the meaning of a sentence. Other examples of structural ambiguity are seen in

"Visiting relatives can be nuisance" which may mean : visiting/ relatives can be nuisance, or visiting relatives/can be a nuisance. Again, the sentence.

"The tennis-court is available for school boys only on Saturdays" can either mean "The Tennis court is available for school boys only/on Saturday". In the case of phrases like the school boys/only on Saturday." In the case of of phrases like the "old/MLA's quarters", or the "old MLA's/ quarters", juncture may be of some help in making the intended meaning clear. But it must be admitted that the function of grammar is to account for such ambiguities and I.C.Analysis does not attempt to do so.

I.C. Analysis is useful in showing the structuring of sentences which are already in existence. Though it enables us to understand the structural patterns of common, frequently heard English sentences, it does not account for the wide range and variety of utterances in the language/. In othe other words I.C.Analysis cannot and does not generate all the possible sentences in English. It only describes a few well known patterns and their structures. But structure alone cannot guarantee meaning. Though many nouns can combine with many verbs to give meaningful utterances any nouns cannot combine with any verbs to give meaningful utterances It is true that structural words such as these, those, it and some of the prepositions in their primary sense signal meanings. But structurally similar sentences need not have the same meanings because certain words, particularly lexical ones, affect the meaning of an utterance. This can be seen by comparing the sentences "Sita is eager to please" and "Sita is easy to please."

Because of the shortcomings in the method of I.C.Analysis which have been pointed out already a new system had to be devised to describe all possible utterances in english and to generate the sentences of the language. It is for this purpose that the new transformational and generative grammar has been introduced by Chomsky and his followers.

Q.14 What are Kernel sentences ? Analyse, with the help of diagrams, a set of Kernel patterns in English.

Ans. In Modern English grammar, great importance is given to the study of the simples english sentences patterns for understanding the more complicated structure. The simplest types of sentences are called

the Kernel patterns of the language. The most complicated sentence structures are shown to be elaborations of the Kernels. The simplest types of sentences are called the Kernel patterns of the language. The most complicated sentence structures are shown to be elaborations of the kernels. The simplest Kernel type of sentence in English consists of just two words, a noun and a verb, as in 'Birds sing'. The noun is the word that comes first in the two word example of the basic English sentence pattern and the verb is the word that occurs second.

Now each of the two single words which form the immediate constituents of the sentence 'Birds sing' can be replaced by longer sequences of words, and each of these sequences will play the same structural role as the single word in either case. The sequence which replaces 'Birds' will be called a noun phrase and the sequence which replaces 'sing' will be called a predicated phrase.

The noun phrase in a Kernel sentence has the standard pattern (Determiner)+Nominal word. The word 'determiner' here is given in brackets to indicate that in some noun phrases determiners never occur. Woman, the women, a girl, some men, anybody, something, an orange, he she, we are all examples of noun phrases. Determiner is the calls name adopted by modern grammarians as an addition to the conventional names used for them by older grammarians Determiners include the articles, (a, an, the,) the demonstrative pronouns, (this, that, these, those) and the words given below which are called quantifiers :

Some	no	more
any	another	few
most	every	less
much	neither	several
many	either	all
each	enough	both

They occur in the same structural role as 'he' in a noun phrase. 'All' and 'both' are called special determiners because they can precede other determiners and can also occur at the end of a noun phrase as in 'the girls all sang" instead of 'all the girls sang."

The term nominal word includes both nouns and pronouns. The main difference between them is that pronouns are almost never accompanied by determiners. The pronouns include personal pronouns (I, You, he she, it we, you, they) and indefinite pronouns (nobody, anybody, everybody, somebody, no one, anyone, everyone, some one, nothing, anything everything, something.)

As the kernal patterns consist of two immediate constituents; the noun phrase and the predicate phrase, it is possible to have a group of simple structures, with variations within the noun phrase and the predicate phrase. N.R.Cattel, his "New English Grammar" present a set of seven Kernel patterns, with the warning that this is by no means a definite listing nor a universally approved one.

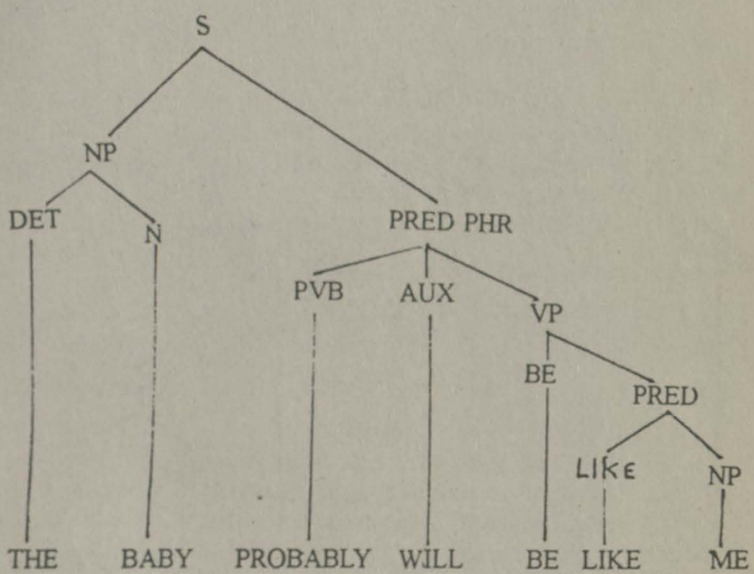
The first Kernel pattern is illustrated by the sentence :

The baby probably will be like me.

This sentence is represented as a string of elements in the following fashion :

Determiner (Det)	Noun (N)	Preverbal adverbial (PVB)	Auxiliary (Aux)	Be	Like	Noun (N)
The	baby	probably	will	be	like	me

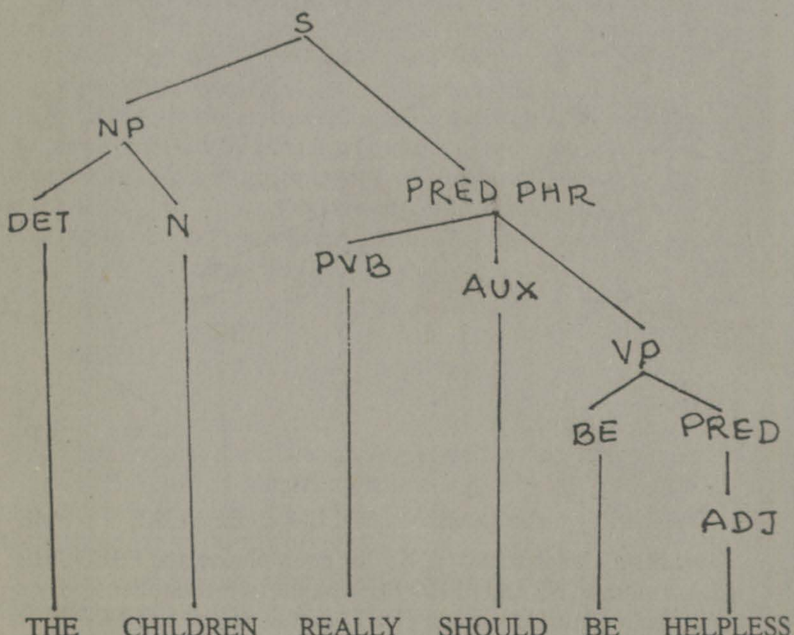
The structure of the above sentence can also be shown by using what is called a branching tree diagram.



Here S stands for sentence, NP for noun phrase and PRED PHR for predicate phrase. NP and PRED PHR are the immediate constituents of S NP branches into determiner (DET) and noun (N) and PRD PHR into PVB (pre adverbial AUX (auxillary) VP(verb phrase). PVB may be of two kinds, positive, (always. usually, frequently: probably, certainly, fortunately etc.) and negative; (never, scarely, hardly, rarely. seldom, barely , little e.t.c.). In this as well as in other Kernel patterns we distinguish three kinds of auxiliaries like modal auxiliaries. (will, shall, would. could, should, can. may, might. must) have and its parts, (like has, had,) and be and its parts (like been, being, am, is, are, was, were.) The sentence component described as Aux may consist of , not a single word, but a sequence. the pattern for which is (Modal) + (Have) + (Be).

In this Kernel Pattern, We find that the proverb has a tendency to move close to the main word and so we find it moving to the other side of the part or all of the auxiliary so that the sentence already cited becomes "The baby will probably be like me" Also it must be noted that the word 'be is here used as the main verb and that in the predicate phrase special forms like me, "him her us, them may be found as realisations of the noun phrase. This Kernel pattern like the others are to be described after this, can have , in addition to the predicate phrase as in the sentence , "She will always be like an angel by his side"

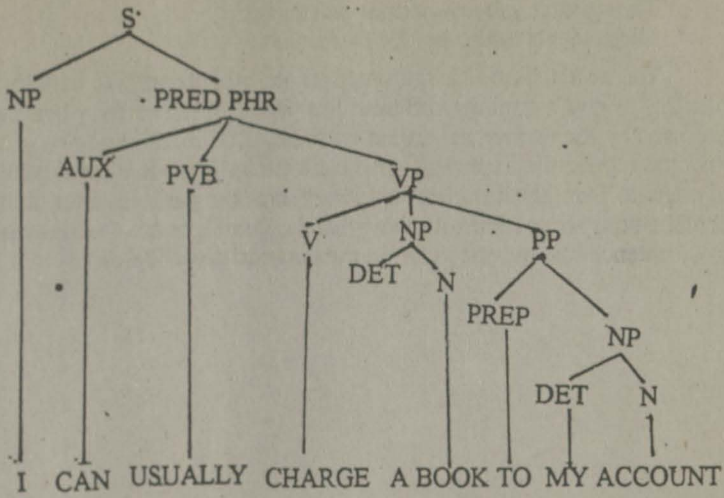
Kernel - pattern 2 is different from the first in that the constituent PRED is seen to be an adjective as in the sentence, " The children really should be helpless" which can be analysed as shown below :



In this pattern the adjective instead of being a single word, can be a combination of an intensifier adjective . In the above sentence we could have the adjective "helpless" replaced, by "quite helpless" , quite being an intensifier. Other intensifiers are very, really, rather. particularly, exceedingly, extremely, fairly etc.

As an example of **kernel pattern 3,** the sentence "I can usually charge a book to my account" has been selected by N.R. Cattel who

analyses it in the following branching tree diagram :



This is a pattern involving transitive verbs, those verbs which may be followed by objects which are noun phrases of just the same kind as have occured in the sentence patterns already analysed. Examples of such transitive verbs are:

accuse	believe	demand	terrify
admire	beat	discover	trouble
astonish	begin	eat	overcome
announce	complete	find	understand
acknowledge	construct	fix	undo

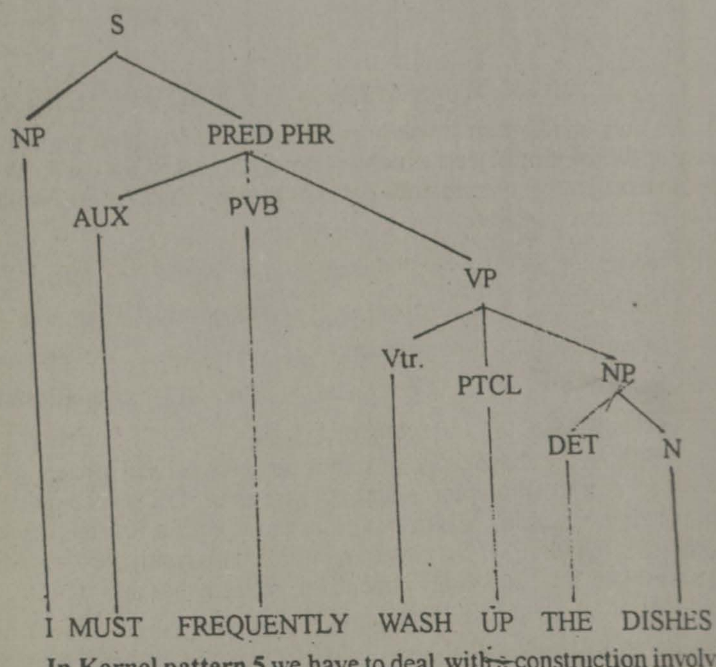
"PP" in the above diagram stands for prepositional phrase which consist of a preposition plus a noun phrase as in "to my account". The place or time adverbials which can occur in the earlier Kernel pattern 3 is different from these. It has close structural bondss with the verb, while the adverbials are just loosely attached to the sentence as a whole.

The "PP" in this Kernel pattern may sometimes consist of a sequence of prepositional phrases in the sentence "He wrote to his mother about his difficulties "This pattern can sometimes have an additional item in the VP in the form of a matter adverbial. This is illustrated by the sentence "The new servant did his *work in a careless way"* But such adverbials of manner cannot follow all transitive verbs and this is an important point.

In Kernel pattern 4 we find a transitive verb followed by a word which is intimately related to it and combines with it to form a syntactic unit. For example,

She *washed up* the dishes
The children *put away* their playthings
The students *took away* all the books

The words like up, away, out, over etc. which combine with verbs like this to give meanings different from those of the verbs when they are used by themselves are called particles. The combination of verb and particle is called a phrasal verb, and it is a fairly modern development of english. Though all transitive verbs do not take particles after them, combinations are possible with those that do. Kernel pattern 4 is illustrated by a sentence like the one given in the diagram given below:

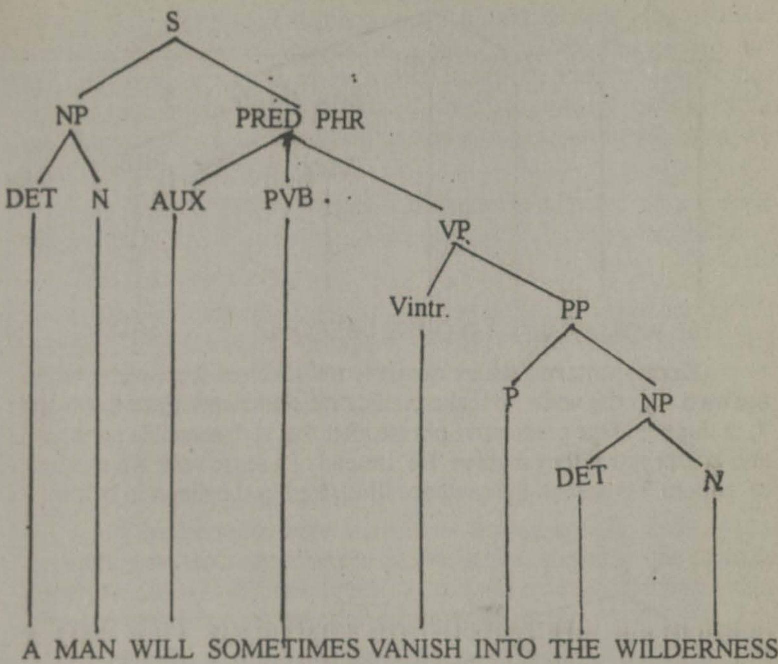


In Kernel pattern 5 we have to deal with a construction involving intransitive verbs (which may not take objects after them). Examples of such verbs are appear, arrive, go, sleep, happen, vanish etc. These can be followed by prepositional phrases closely attached to the verb :

The woman went into the house
They soon arrived at the railway station

Like pattern 3, pattern 5 also can have a manner adverbial as in the sentence " The boys immediately disappeared into the dark in a mysterious way ". Pattern 5 which can be illustrated by the following

diagram.



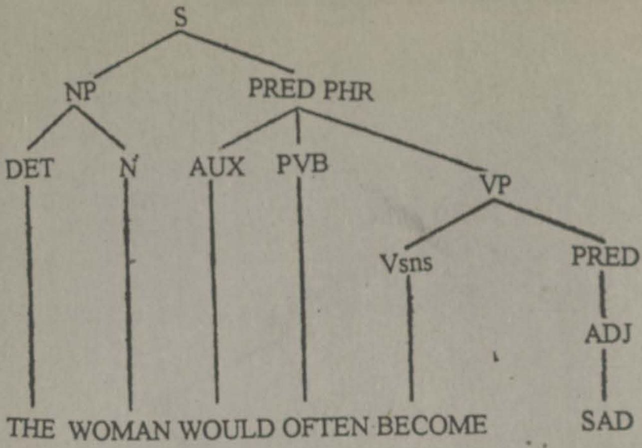
In Kernel pattern 6 we have to deal with sentences using certain verbs (mostly those referring to sense impressions) which may be followed by adjectives. Examples of such verbs are feel, sound, look, taste, smell, seem, turn, stay, become, etc. We may use the general term sense verbs to cover this group of verbs. In this pattern the adjective following the verb may be replaced by an adjective construct, that is, an intensifier plus an adjective as in :

The girl felt *very sad*
The woman seemed *quite happy*

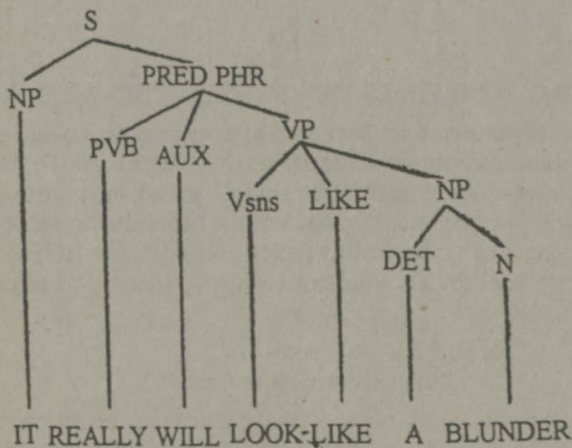
The sense verbs which occur in this pattern may be followed by a noun phrase instead of an adjective with or without the word 'like' preceding it :

He looked like a successful artist,
She felt (like) a fool,
It sounded a ridiculous story,

Pattern 6 may be illustrated by the following diagram :



Kernel pattern 7 which like pattern 6, involves sense verbs, which are used after the verbs to make predicative statements. Patterns 6 and 7, in this use of the predicative phrase after the verb resemble patterns 1 and 2, except that they involve 'Be' instead of a sense verb. An example of pattern 7 is seen in the sentence illustrated in the diagram below :



Be and SNS Verb which are alike in this repect are presented in different patterns (Be in patterns 1 and 5, SNS Verbs in 6 and 7) because they participate in different tranformations :

With the seven Kernel patterns which have already been discussed and analysed it is possible to have more and more complicated sentences which are elaborations of the structure of the Kernels.

Q.15 Give an account of the basic sentence types that are derived by "transformation" from the Kernel patterns in English.

Ans. The Kernel sentences which have been analysed in Question VI may be considered as the nucleus of English structure. Now we have a variety of sentence structures as a result to the changes which are wrought on the structures of the Kernel sentences. These changes often referred to as "transformations" may consist of items added to the existing structure or items deleted from it, or may simply result in changing the order in which the items occur.

The simplest transformation that can be effected on a Kernel sentence is what Chomsky has called the *separation transformation.*

(1) A sentence like

"He wrote out the names"==—> "He wrote the names out" by the separation transformation. Though this kind of transformation is generally optional, it becomes obligatory when the object is a pronoun . Then we have to separate the verb and the particle and they cannot be put together:

He *washed* it *up*.
I *sent* her *away*.
He *threw* it *out*.

(2) In the *imperative transformation* we have to arrive at an imperative sentence by changes in the base sentence in the form of additional element. This is added to the base sentence which is on the left hand to balance the equation as shown below.

IMP + you will come to the house ==—> come to the house. IMP here carries the meaning of "the speaker requests that" or something like it. We can add this IMP to any Kernel beginning with "you will................" to from the base for this kind of transformation and then delete IMP+(you will) to arrive at the imperative transformation as in "come in to the house".

Now this imperative transformation can also be brought about by changing the base sentence into a sentence with a tag question as in :

Come to the house, will you ?

or

Do this work will you?

But there are few sentences, which by the nature of their meanings, can not be transformed into imperative ones. We do not have imperative sentences like:

Want more tea.
Believe in witch craft
feel hungry

(3) Another common basic sentence type is the one resulting from the *passive transformation*. We know that the two sentences "The boy

kicks the dog and the dog is kicked by the boy" are alike in meaning though the second sentence is derived from the first by the passive transformation. The transformation here can be expressed by the equation:

The boy kicks the dog + by PASSIVE = The dog is kicked by the boy.

The change may be analysed as follows :—

(a) Here the object noun-phrase (the dog) moves around and replaces the subject noun phrase (the boy) which, in turn takes the place of the item PASSIVE. The item PASSIVE is then deleted.

(b) If any auxiliary verbs occur in the active form of the sentence, they are carried over , unaltered to the passive.

(c) Also part of the verb 'be' is introduced .If an aunxiliary is brought over from the active, 'be' comes after it and takes the form as shown below

(1) After have, has, had, it takes the form been

(2) After am, is, are , were, be or been it take the form being.

(3) After will or another modal auxiliary it takes the form be.

(d) When there is no auxiliary brought over from the active the part of 'be' which is introduced will be used to show tense and number.

(c) The part of 'be' in the passive sentence will be followed by the past participle of the same verb that occurred in the active sentence.

Some verbs— often called the middle verbs— are not associated with the passive construction :

The house costs forty thousand rupees.
The baby weighs seven pounds.
That woman resembles my sister.

These cannot be changed into the passive form.

The passive transformation can be applied in sentences where a prepositional phrase following a transitive verb and beginning with 'to' can be changed into an indirect object. But this transformation can be applied only if the verb occurring in the sentence belongs in a small subject including give, lend, offer, send, build, buy, get, leave, make etc.

He offered a book to me --> He offered me a book.

Now the passive transformation can be applied to both the above sentences. From the first we have the passive.

A book was offered to me (by him)

From the second we have the passive

I was offered a book

Or

A book was offered to me.

But this kind of passive transformation cannot take place in a sentence where a prepositional phrase beginning with 'for' follows a transitive verb :

He bought a saree for her ---> He bought her a saree.

(4) In transformational grammar we sometimes find that truncated, versions of certain sentence patterns are arrived at by *deleting* the objects of some transitive verbs which can appear either with or without the object :

I smoke cigarettes---> I smoke.

He writes books---> He writes.,

The deletion which applies to the structural pattern underlying these sentences may be expressed as below :

NP+TR VERB+NP---> NP+TR VERB

There is also another kind of deletion, where, in a sequence consisting of Auxiliary+Verb in a pattern, the verb is deleted and the auxiliary alone is left. But this deletion takes place only in situations where the main verb is unnecessary, as it can be understood from the context. In answer to the question "Can you swim ?", it is enough to say "I can" because "Swim" is understood.

(5) Another basic sentence type in English involves questions beginning with who, what, which, when, where, how, etc. which are often called the WH-QUESTIONS, because many of the words beginning such questions have an initial WH-spelling. When we have to ask a question regarding a given statement, the transformation is effected as shown below :

Q+The thing hit on his head---> Which thing hit on his head ?

WH

Here Q stands for question and it indicates that a question must be asked about the sentence that follows. But we want more information, not about the whole statement but about *the thing*, under which we have put the WH. The transformation consists in replacing the determiner by a wh-word like which.

If instead of the subject, the subject is queried, the transformation is different, and it may be shown as follows :

Q+The boy has lost the ball---> Which ball has the boy lost ?

WH

What has happened may be summarized as follows:

(1) The queried noun phrase is brought to the front of the sentence.

(2) The definite article 'the' is changed to a wh-word which.

(3) The subject and the auxiliary change places.

(4) The symbol . Q is deleted.

In transforming a sentence with no auxiliary verb into the question form, a part of the word 'do' is introduced as a kind of dummy auxiliary and it is invested with the indications of tense and number, carried by the verb, and the verb is reduced to its unchanged form. So Q+The boy lost the ball ---> Which ball did

WH

the boy lose ?

When a wh- word appears in a question without an accompanying noun, as in

"What should he do?"
"Who will do the work ?"

We have to assume that the base sentence contains a noun phrase with an indefinite article (as if someone, something were treated as some one and some thing). The connection between a wh- question and its base is illustrated by the following examples:

Q+He should do something---> What should he do ?

WH

Q+Someone will do the work---> Who will do the work ?

WH

Q+He will select someone ---> Who (m) will he select ?

WH

Q+They had reached some place---> At what place (where had

they reached ?

WH

Q+The meeting will begin at. sometime--> At what time (When)

WH

will the meeting begin?

Q+He lost money in someway --> In what way (how) did he

———— lose the money?
WH

(6) In question which require a yes or no anwer the whole sentences is queried and the transformation involved may be shown as follows:

Q+The girls can choose their husbands--> Can the girls choose their husbands ?

The simple transformation is brought about by the reversing of the subject and the auxiliary and the deleting of the symbol Q. In a sentences where there is no auxiliary 'do' is introduced as a dummy auxiliary as in

Q+She knows the facts -Does she know the facts?

(7) Another type of sentence in English is derived from what is called a generalised Base or a base made up of two or more Kernel patterns. These Kernel patterns may either be conjoined so that one follows the other or one of the sentences may be embedded in the other. If the two Kernel sentences are conjoined the pattern will be indicated by

(S1) (S2)

where S1 and S2 represent the two Kernels. But it is also possible to have one the sentences 'embeded' in the other so that the pattern becomes S1 S2 S1

In conjoining, S1 and S2 are joined by 'and".

John is learning English -Jacob is learning Hindi : By conjoining.
S1 S2

we have,

John is learning English and Jacob is learning Hindi.

Any two Kernel pattern types may be conjoined, though any two individual sentences may not be. For example, we do not say " I have taken my lunch and the Prime Minister will be coming to Cochin next month."

Often we find that in sentences which are conjoined all repetitive words are deleted. For example, the two sentences

(My daughter is studying in Maharaja's College) My son is studying in Maharaja's college) when conjoined become My daughter is studying in Maharaja's College and my son too.

This sentence also shows that when the elements of a generalised base are the same except for the subjects we can join them by enjoining

the second in "and .... too." Another types of conjoining is effected by joining together two sentences as in the following:

(Sita can sing) (Lakshmi can sing)--> Sita can sing and so can Lakshmi.

Similarly we can have the kind of conjoining where the repetition of an object noun phrase is avoided by substituting 'it,' For example.

(I like coffee) (My son likes coffee), I like coffee and my son likes it too.

Coming to sentences where transformations are effected by having one sentence embedded in the other we find that in such a case the noun in the second sentence which serves as its subject is the object in the first sentence. It is changed into a relative pronoun which joins the two sentences.

For example:

(He brought a car) (The car belonged to his friend) He brought a car that belonged to his friend.

It is possible to have the host clause in the above sentence converted into the relative clause and its place taken by the relative clause, with the base changed in such a way as to anticipate the embedding of the relative clause within the sentence. The is illustrated as follows:

(The car (He bought a car) belonged to his friend) The car that he bought belonged to his friend.

In such relative clauses as are given above, we can use the relative pronoun 'that' to replace any noun, human, or non–human, but 'which' can be used only in reference to nouns which are non- human. Similarly some people use the relative pronoun 'who' to replace a noun which is a subject and 'whom' to replace a noun which is an object though more and more are coming to use "who" in both cases.

Relative pronouns are seen to introduce two kinds of clauses; the restrictive or defining one and the appositive or non- defining one.

"The girl *who sang on the occasion* was very pretty," contains a restrictive clause, while the sentence, "The man, who was English, was very arrogant", contains an appositive clause.

The restrictive clause is used to identify the person or thing referred to in the antecedent noun while the appositive clause is almost like an aside, which gives some additional information about the preceding noun. Unspecified determiners like any, all, can be followed only by restrictive clauses.Though it is corret to say:

"Any man who is a christian can marry her", it is not right to say "Any man, who is a christian can marry her."

Specified determiner like a, the etc. can be followed either by restrictive or appositive, clauses. The sentences :

The athlete who has won many trophies, is to be honoured, The athelete, who has won many trophies, is to be honoured, are both correct.

When a proper noun by itself or in combination with 'the' as in "the Ganges," "the Queen" refers uniquely to one individual, person or place, it is said that the nominal contains a unique determiner. It can be followed only by appositive relative clause.

Rani, who is beautiful, has many admirers.

The Ganges, which is a sacred river, flows down from the Himalayas.

Both the sentences above will not be acceptable if the relative clauses are made into restrictive ones by removing the commas.

(8) The comparative conjunction is a basic sentence variation which shows comparison between two Kernels of pattern 2 type containing predictive adjectives. There are two type of comparative conjunction. The first type involves comparison of degrees of intensity or of a quality or of several qualities. The base here contains an item COMPARATIVE which undergoes one of the following developments:

as........... as
–er than (more .... than)
less ....than

The resulting sentence in the comparative conjunction will be different according to whether the two nominals in the Kernel sentences are the same or not, and according to the two adjectives being the same or not.

When the nominals are different and the adjectives are identical, the following transformations are effected:

(Lata is pretty COMPARATIVE) (Priya is pretty)-->

Lata is as pretty as Priya is pretty.
Lata is prettier than Priya is pretty.
Lata is less pretty than Priya is pretty.

Now each of the above resultant sentence does not occur in its full form in actual use where we regularly delete parts of these so that they are reduced to

Lata is as pretty as Priya (is) (pretty)
Lata is prettier than Priya (is) (pretty)
Lata is less pretty than Priya (is) (pretty)

The comparison can be made exactly in the same way when the adjectives are extended by complements:

Aparna is difficult to please than Priya (is) difficult to please).

Aparna is less difficult to please than Priya (is) (difficult to please).

We get a slightly different kind of comparative conjunction when

the nominals are identical and the adjectives are different in the two Kernel sentences. This is what happens:

(John is honest COMPARATIVE) (John is hardworking)

John is as honest as John is hardworking.
John is more honest than John is hardworking.
John is less honest than John is hardworking.

In actual usage, however, the repetition of the name is eliminated in favour of a pronoun so that we have

John is an honest as hardworking.
John is more honest than he is hardworking.
John is less honest than he is hardworking.

Stilll another comparative conjunction is possible where the nominals and adjectives are different in the two Kernels which are to be joined :

[Aparna is beautiful COMPARATIVE] [Priya is clever]

Aparna is as beautiful as Priya is clever.
Aparna is more beautiful than Priya is clever.
Aparna is less beautiful than Priya is clever.

Adjectival complements may take the place of the adjectives in sentence of this kind so as to give us examples like :

Lakshmi is as pleasing in behaviour as Leela is beautiful in appearance.

The *second type* of comparative conjunction compares the applicability of several adjectival terms while the first type, already discussed, provides a balancing of intensity of one or more qualities. The typical links made use of in the second type of comparison are :

rather............................than
not so much..................as

The development of the comparative conjunction of the second type is illustrated below :

[Lakshmi is dull COMPARATIVE] (Lakshmi is lazy)

Lakshmi is dull rather than Lakshmi is lazy.
Lakshmi is not so much lazy as she is dull.

These sentences are further reduced to

Lakshmi is dull rather than lazy.
Lakshmi is not so much lazy as dull.

In these sentences the constructions "rather....................than" and "not so much.................as" differ in the order in which they present the adjectivals for comparison.

In some instances we can make the Type 2 comparisons making use of the links more...........than and less.............than as in Type 1. But here the two types are kept separate in Spoken English by difference in

intonation or by making use of pauses; and in written English by using quotation marks for the adjectives. For examples we can have.

Type I. The girl is more lazy than she is dull.
Type II. The girl is more "lazy" than she is "dull"

Now it is possible to have another type of sentence transformation where a comparative conjunction becomes a relative clause embedded in another Kernel sentence which becomes the host clause. Thus we have (I met Laila) (Laila is as smart as Leela is)—I met Laila who is as smart as Leela is (I saw Lalitha) (Lalitha is as clever as she is good looking)—I saw Lalitha who is as clever as she is good looking)—I saw Lalitha who is as clever as she is good looking.

(9) **Nominalization** or the process of converting a sentence pattern into a nominal group is sometimes made use of in arriving at a basic sentence pattern where this nominal group will be the subject. For example, we can take the following sentences :

1. That Jacob was dishonest was quite upsetting.
2. For Jacob to be dishonest was quite upsetting.
3. Jacob's being dishonest was quite upsetting.

If we can think of the main part of the subject in each of the above sentences as consisting of "Jacob be dishonest" then the underlying structure of the sentence would be seen to be

[(Jacob be dishonest) was quite surprising]

To this basic structure we add one of the following elements which are called complementizers :—

that...................
for ....to
's......................ing

After fixing up the form of 'Be' appropriately in the basic structure, we can, with the help of the above complementizers, thus arrive at the sentences, 1, 2, and 3, already given. Also it is possible to have two other variations of this transformation by putting "It" in the place of the nominalization and taking the latter to the end of the sentence. The resulting sentences would be :

It was quite upsetting that Jacob was dishonest.
It was quite upsetting for Jacob to be dishonest.

(10) Sentence negation or changing a positive statement into its negative counterpart gives us another basic sentence variation. To effect such a transformation we should add not or -n't to the first auxiliary in the sentence where one occurs. For example.

[NEG+She is coming to work]— She is not (is n't) coming to work

[NEG+You should speak the truth)— You should not (should n't) speak the truth.

In sentences where no auxiliary occurs the word 'do' in some form is introduced as a dummy auxiliary and not or -n't is added after it, as in the following :

[NEG+The boys shouted]—The boys did not (did -n't) shout.

[NEG+I know Hindi]— I do not (don't) know Hindi.

Though in a statement we can have the full word 'not' to express sentence negation, it contracted to -n't in the question form. We find that native speakers of English ask "Aren't you going to do it?" instead of "Are not you going to do it?" However, when one wants to stress the negation of the meaning of a verb, the question inversion takes place without involving the word 'not' as in.

"Are you not going to do it?"

It must be noted that though two positive Kernel patterns can be joined together by "and.............too", with the repetitive words deleted from the second clause, two negated Kernels can be joined together only by "and...............". For example. [I won't come to the party] My husband won't come to the party]—I won't come to the party and my husband won't either.

Sometimes 'not either' in such sentences becomes transformed into neither : I won't come to the party and neither will my husband.

Negative sentence may be extended by sequences beginning with "not even..............." as in.

"He did not get any money, not even a single rupee". It is seen that certain words which are often called indefinites, have a strong tendency to occur in the vicinity of negatives. Hence while changing sentences containing definite determiners into the negative form it is not enough to add 'not' after the auxiliary. Definite forms like some, something, somebody, someone occurring in the positive sentence have to be changed into the indefinite forms, any, anything, anybody, anyone.

[NEG+I have read some books]— I have n't read any books.

[NEG+She brought something good]— She has n't brought any thing good.

[NEG+I have met somebody who loves painting]— I have n't met anybody who loves painting.

[NEG+She has fallen in love with someone]—She has n't fallen in love with anyone.

A similar change takes place when a positive sentence containing an adverb or adverbial phrase is changed into the negative :

[NEG+I have sometimes done it myself]—I have n't ever done it.

[NEG+I have done it at times]—I have n't done it at any time.

Thus it is seen that a variety of transformations or basic sentence types like those already discussed can be effected through changes wrought on the structure of Kernel sentences which may be regarded as the nucleus of English structure.

Q.16 Write an essay on the notion of tense in verbs or indicate clearly the relationship between time and tense.

Ans. When we look at Modern English usage we may at first feel that as far as the main verb and formal inflections are concerned, English has only two real tenses, past and present. This however, is not a correct way of talking of tense, because our notions of tense are bound up more with concepts of time than with verbal inflections. Though tense and time can by no means be considered synonymous the one naturally involves the other. In English usage, time-sense is achieved not merely by verbal inflexions, but also by the use of what are called auxiliary verbs and sometimes by expressions like about to, going to etc. Whether we use the traditional expressions tense or invent another, there is a kind of formal arrangement of main verbs and auxiliaries in English sentences to imply a kind of time scale.

We can divide time normally into three : past present and future. Present time, however, is different from the past and the future which stretches away in opposite directions from it, in that it can be thought of as a single instant which keeps on moving. By the time we reach the next instant, the present instant has already become part of the past, and until we reach the next instant, it is still a part of the future. That is why we can speak of the present as a moving instant.

Tense in grammar, though closely associated with time, does not have the same limitations and cannot be considered synonymous with it. What we call the present tense is a grammatical form which often does not refer to any definite period of time. In a sentence like "I go to college at nine o'clock in the morning" no definite period of time is implied though the present tense is used. What the sentence implies is that it is my habit to go to college at nine o'clock in the morning. So the present tense is used here not to refer to a habitual actions which started at some vague point of time in the past and still continues in the present and may go on into the future. So the present tense is here without any limitations of time. The same is the case with use of the present tense in stating what are called eternal truths :

The sun rises in the East.
Honesty is the best policy.

In these examples too, the use of the present tense has no particular reference to present time. When we say "He is a doctor" we are using the present tense in referring to some indefinite period which probably extends back into the past for some years and may also extend into the future. But in the sentence "she is boiling the rice" the present tense is used to

indicate a vague period of time which we may think of as this instant when the rice continues to boil or as the short period of time required to cook it. This use of the present tense is more closely related to the idea of present time than the others already referred to. It is thus seen that the present tense is used to cover an expanding idea of what constitutes the present.

The present tense form is also used to express both the past and the future. Past events can sometimes be more vividly described in what is called the "vivid present." Though this usage is usually restricted to the spoken form, it is effectively used by novelists to give greater immediacy to their account :

> "She had at last found her long lost brother. At sight of him she is overcome by emotion and she hugs him close, determined not to let him go."

Again, we find that the present tense is sometimes used to indicate future times or in reference to actions which are to take place in the future. We sometimes hear sentences like :

> I leave for Trivandrum next week.
> My leave expires next month.
> The order comes into effect next Monday.

It is often seen that the tripartite division of time into past, present and future is too inadequate for some needs. Hence the English tense system takes into account more sub-divisions of time in each of the three phases. Thus we have altogether nine time-phases expressed by the English tense forms.

The past tense itself is seen to be comprised of the simple past, the before-past, and the after-past. Each of these tense involves the expression of two time-shifts. In a sentence like "Last Monday, at six O'clock I had just returned from Trivandrum", we find that there is a reference to a point of time in the past, namely six O'clock on the previous Monday. At this point of time an action in said to have been completed, that is the return from Trivandrum, which takes us further back into the past. This action is said to be completed just before six O'clock on Monday. The first reference fixes our attention on a point of time in the past and the second had to do with what happened before that point of reference. The second reference is to the before past, traditionally called the 'pluperfect'. Like the before-past, we can also have an after-past, by beginning with a reference to a point of time in the past and then going on to another which followed it or moved towards the present, which at the time was, in the future :

Last Tuesday, at one O'clock I was about to take my lunch, last Tuesday at one O'clock is the point of reference in the past and the action referred to was to take place after this point of time in the past subsequent to it. Hence the name after-past.

In addition to the before-past and the after-past there is also the tense by which we refer to the past in a simple way :

Last evening at Six O'clock I reached home.

This simple past is called the preterite and the after-past the post-preterite.

Like the past, the present tense also has its three phases : the simple present, the before-present and the after-present. The simple present has already been referred to. It is used to express habitual actions, on general truths or to indicate vividly actions which have taken place in the past and action which are to take place in the future :

(1) I get up early in the morning.
(2) The sun rises in the East.
(3) I met George yesterday after twelve years—He tells me I have not changed at all.
(4) I retire at the end of this year.

The before-present is used to report the state of affairs at the present moment, referring to some event which has just been completed in the immediate past. If I say "I have finished the work", it means the work has just been completed before the moment of speaking, which is the present. Hence the name before-present. In the "after present", on the other hand the reference is to the present state of affairs, indicating an event which is to be subsequent to this point of time. We have examples of after-present in :

"I am about to read the minutes ".
"I am going to take my lunch".

Like the past and the present tense, the future tense also has its three phases; including the simple future, the before future and after-future, though the last two are less frequently used than the corresponding phases of the past and present tense. If one says, "Next Monday at eight O'clock my sister will have arrived", there is a double time-shift involved. First of all a reference time in the future) (next Monday at eight O'clock) is fixed. Then what would have happened in the immediate past before that traditionally known as the future perfect. If one says "Next Monday at eight O' clock my sister will be about to arrive", a point of time in the future is first fixed and then an event is referred to as taking place subsequent to that time. Hence it is called the after future tense. Instead of the before-future or after-future, one can use the simple future and say "Next Monday at eight O'clock my sister will arrive", thus referring to what is to take place at some point of time in the future.

Modern English has also developed what are called continuous *expanded tenses* which are used when the speaker wishes to express a continuity of action of some kind or to have a frame of reference in relation to which another action can be described :

I am reading a novel.
I was reading a novel, when my friend came in.

Though in theory we can have the continuous form of each of the nine tenses described above, some of them are not used. The following are the most commonly used forms :

I had been reading.
I was reading.
I have been reading.
I am reading.
I will have been reading.
I will be reading.

It is seen that when utterances are changed from direct speech to in direct speech, the tenses used undergo changes. An utterance in the simple present changes to the simple-past when reported.

He said "I am hungry".— He said that he was hungry. The simple past in indirect speech becomes the before-past :

He admitted "I was sorry."— He admitted that he had been sorry.

The before-present is changed into the before past :

He said "I have escaped".— He said that he had escaped. The simple future in indirect speech, becomes a model form :

She said, "I will come"— She said that she would come.

Q.17 What is a morpheme ? What are its characteristics?

Or

Distinguish between free and bound morphemes.

Ans. A morpheme may be described as a sequence of sounds in a meaningful combination. Any word or part of a word in the language which has a meaning of its own and which cannot be further split into smaller meaningful units is a morpheme. The word love is a sequence of sounds which cannot be further divided and hence it is a morpheme. But the word lover may be split up into the two morphemes love and-er (/ər/) where /ər/ has the meaning "that which does the action named in the preceding syllables". This should not mislead us into thinking that every word of more than one syllable can be divided into the same number of morphemes. The length of a word has nothing to do with the number of morphemes contained in it. There are some English words of five or six syllables which together constitute a single morpheme while there are some morphemes which are comprised of only one syllable or one sound.

Morphemes can be broadly divided into bound morphemes and free morphemes. A free morpheme is one which has an independent meaning without being combined with another. Boy, home, mountain, cat, bird are all free morphemes. Now each of these can have an -s added

to it to express plurality (boys, homes, mountain etc.) and this plural morpheme has no meaning in isolation. Hence it is an example of a bound morpheme. There are many such bound morphemes in English like -ness (strangeness) -less (meaningless) -ish (childish) -ship (kingship) -un (unkind) -im (immovable) etc. These contribute to the production of new words and concepts in the language. Which particular bound morpheme can be attached to a free morpheme will depend on the nature of the free morpheme and the process is morphologically conditioned.

A number of words in the language are seen to be made up of a base plus an affix. The base is the root word and the affix is the bound morpheme that is added to it, either as a prefix or as a suffix. Some languages make use of infixes too. The general term from suffix, prefix and infix is affix. In the word unkind, the morpheme -un is used as a prefix, while in kindness, the morpheme-ness is used as a suffix and kind is the root word in both cases.

When we study plural nouns like cats, dogs, boxes, horses etc. we see that in certain nouns which end in voiceless consonants (like cat) the /s/ morpheme is added to give the plural form while in some others /z/ is added for the same purpose and still others have in /iz/. It is seen that the same morpheme, like the plural morpheme in these nouns, may occur in slightly different forms which are phonologically conditioned. For instance in a noun which has its singular form ending in a voiced sound the plural morphome occurs as an /Z/ or /iz/ while in a singular noun ending in an unvoiced sound the plural mopheme is added in the form of an /s/. The /z/, /iz/ and /s/ which are used to indicate plurality in nouns are called allomorphs or alternative members of the plural morpheme or the /ES/ morpheme.

It is possible that the same morpheme may occur in different contexts in different meanings. This is an aspect of contextual meaning. The /ES/ morpheme which is used with nouns to indicate plurality, express another meaning when used with a verb. When added to a verb /s/, /z/ and /iz/ can be sign of the third person singular. This verb morpheme and the noun plural morpheme, though identical in sound are to be kept separate because of their difference in meaning.

Morpheme can be identified only by preparing various samples of language. If two or more examples can be found in which some feature of expression is common and some feature of content (meaning) expressed by it is also common, we can identify this feature tentatively as a morpheme. For example we may take nouns like boys, dogs, roads, flowers and birds all of which are alike in containing the feature /z/ which means two or more. Thus we come to identify /z/ as a plural morpheme. But though this plural morpheme is seen to consist of only one phonome /z/ we cannot say that the phoneme /z/ and the plural morpheme are identical. The /z/ phoneme occurs in ever so many contexts where it has nothing to

do with the plural morphoneme (zoo, zero, zebra, zenith etc.) Generally the English morphemes are intermediate in size, ranging from two to six phonemes, though there are morphemes like /s/, /z/ consisting of single phonemes also.

Very often two morphemes are seen to be alike in expression though different in content. Such morphemes are said to be homophonous (sounding alike)

He *rows* the boat.
The boys stood in *rows.*

When we use the same morpheme in different contexts it some times takes on different meanings. For example a simple word like 'go' is seen to have different meanings in the following contexts :

(1) John goes with Mary.
(2) The road goes to Madras.
(3) That blouse does not go well with this saree.
(4) The watch goes.

We find that a morpheme is the smallest unit in the expression system which acquires different meanings in relation to its position in the structure or the pattern. A good dictionary takes this into account while giving illustrations of the varied uses of a word.

While some morphemes' meaning in the sense of reference to human experience is wholly or largely lacking. This is mainly true of structural words like prepositions, particles etc. The word 'to' in the sentence "I want to go"., does not have an independent meaning outside its context. At the same time it cannot be described as a bound morpheme. It is an example of grammatical or empty words which are used to fulfil the requirements of English structure. It has its characteristic distribution in the language. Other morphemes also have their characteristic distribution. The distribution of the morpheme is the sum of the context in which it can occur it contrast to all those in which it cannot occur. Certain constructions composed of morphemes have a rigidly fixed order. The meaning of a word depends not only on the morphemes present in it but also on the order of their occurrence. A word like 'denationalise' is seen to consist of [de [(nation+al)+ise]]. Here we see the root word 'nation, first, combining with another suffix -ise and the new combination (nationalise) again combining with the prefix -de to form denationalise. This means that there is a structure underlying the combination of morphemes in a word. Similarly we find that in English sentences two words have the most rigidly fixed order with a definable degree of freedom within the sentence. Though we can say "Then I went" or "I went then", we cannot say "went then I". The fixed order of morphemes in certain constructions and a definable degree of freedom are basic to the language. They are expressions of the systematic structure which is the real essence

of speech. A description of the principles of this arrangement is grammar, which according to Gleasons, is morphology and syntax.

Morphemes can be grouped into certain definable classes and the structure of utterances in the language can be stated in terms of these classes of morphemes. For example we can group together verbs like walk, follow, call etc. as verbs forming their third person singular by adding the /s/ morpheme and the past by adding /ed/.

The selection of allomorphs, as in the case of /s/, /z/ or /iz/ which are used to represent the plural morpheme may depend on the phonetic nature of the preceding phonemes (the last sound in the singular). The morpheme /s/ is used after an unvoiced sound like t in cats [kaets], while /z/ or /iz/ is used after a voiced sound as in frogs [frɔgz] or judges [dzə dzez]. These allomorphs are phonologically conditioned and are in complimentary distribution. If we understand the facts of distribution we can accurately predict which of the allomorphs will occur in a given context. This automatic selection is part of the structure which occurs naturally to the native speaker of English.

The selection of allomorphs may also be morphologically conditioned. In other words the selection of an allomorph may depend on the specific morpheme forming the context, and not on the phonetic nature of the last phoneme in the singular noun. For example, we may consider oxen, the plural of ox, with /əu/ as an allomorph of the plural morpheme. This is used with a very small number of nouns in the language (children, brethern, kine) and there is nothing phonological about the selection. Other nouns ending in /KS/ like fox, box, axe form their plurals with /iz/ foksiz, aeksiz. The peculiarity in the case of oxen rests on ox as a morpheme and therefore the selection is said to be morphologically conditioned.

The concept of the morpheme as different from the word is one of the most basic in descriptive linguistics. Its importance both as a tool and as a concept providing insight into the operation of language cannot be over-estimated. While the concept of the word was confined to the free morphemes, the concept of the morpheme has been helpful in describing a large number of bound morphemes. Though these have little meaning in isolation they combine with free morphemes in the form of suffixes, both in flexional and derivational, and change a word from one class into another.

Example :	child	+-ish=childish
	meaning	+-ful=meaningful
	Boy	+-s=Boys
	cat	+'s=cat's
	sing	+-s=sings

walk +-ed=walked

die +-d=died

Bound morphemes may also take the form of prefixes and even infixes, though the latter are not used in English All prefixes in English are derivational morphemes. While inflectional morphemes always come after the base or root word, derivational affixes may come at the beginning or end of a word. A large number of words in the language are the result of derivational changes and more and more new words can be coined with the help of derivational affixes. These affixes can be classified according to their function in giving a word its new class or meaning. Thus we have morphemes which help in forming nouns, adjectives, verbs, diminutives, and feminites. Many of the new words thus formed may have a base which is a loan word from some foreign language, and a typical English affix is added to this. Thus many words come to have the appearance of native English words though their bases may be of non-English origin. The derivational morphemes which enable us to coin new words as and when required, without having to learn them one by one, play a very important part in the functioning of language. They enable us to recognise and understand new words without having encountered them before. Since we know the relationship of 'employ' to employer and employee, we can easily understand that of recommend to recommender and recommendee.

The noun forming morphemes include -er/ or (as in actor, speaker, governor, thinker etc.), -ness (as in sweetness, largeness, happiness etc.), -ful (as in armful, spoonful, bucketful etc.) -man (as in clergyman, swordsman, statesman etc.) -ment (as in enforcement, judgement, government etc.), -ship (as in kingship, friendship, scholarship etc.), -ion/-tion-sion, (as in action, estimation, expansion etc.) -y (as in jealousy, modesty, telegraphy), -ery (mockery, witehery, foolery), -an (Indian; Shakespearean, comedian) -ity (locality, valdity, profundity) etc.

Verb forming morphemes are fewer in number than the noun forming ones. They include -en (lighten, strengthen, soften) -ise (specialise, authorise, visualise), -ate (accentuate, cultivate, regulate), -fy (simplify, purify, intensify) etc. Feminine forms include -ess (princess, tigeress, actress) -ette (suffragette, georgette), -enne (tragedienne, comedienne) -ix (executrix, administratrix). There are morphemes which are used to form diminutives and these include -ie or -y (Johnny, birdie, auntie, dearie) -kin (lambkin, mannikin), -ling (princeling, seedling, sapling) -let (booklet, ringlet) -ette (cigarette, wagonette, kitchenette).

Adjective-forming morphemes include ful (wonderful, hopeful) -y (lengthy, sleepy) -en (wooden, silken) -able (eatable, readable) -ic (angelic, organic) -atic (dogmatic, idiomatic) -ical (classical, ironical) -ous (dangerous, scandalous), -ly (mastely, (friendly) -ory (preparatory, explanatory) -ish (stylish, greenish, English) -some (winsome, lonesome)

-al (normal, personal) -ial (racial, presidential -ular (circular, angular) -ive (repulsive, permissive). There are also some words in English which consist of combinations of a Latin morpheme with a Greek one. These are mostly words relating to science and technology and include works like telephone, phonograph, microphone, polygamy, polyglot, biology, theology, entamology etc.

Q.18 Explain, with the help of diagrams, how in generative grammar branching rules are made use of in deriving the underlying structures of Kernel-patterns.

Or

What is generative grammar ?

Or

Distinguish between structural and generative grammars ?

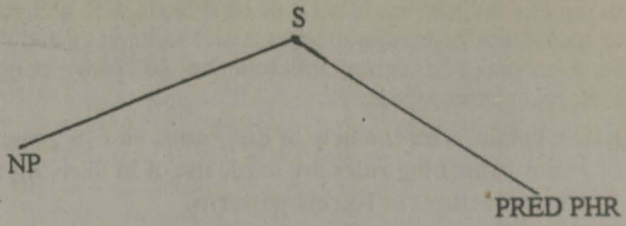
Ans. Generative grammar is different from structural grammar which sets out the structure of a sentence in the form of immediate constituent analysis. In generative treatment of a sentence we have the reverse of what happens in I.C. analysis. Instead of breaking up a sentence, we try to build it up with the help of "branching rules" by which the sentence is ultimately derived.

To generate a sentence (S) we have to begin with a set of Rewrite Rules following the form X Y, which means that X should be re-written as Y. If we want to rewrite a sentence X in the form of its ultimate derivation, Y, we must write down a set of rules on the left hand side, as shown below and show how these rules are carried out in the column on the right hand side. Starting with the rule, Sentence (S) NP+PRED PHR, we are repeating this formula in the succeeding lines of the derivation but substituting in each line some new item (items) in place of one of the items given in the line immediately above it. This process is continued till, for each of the branching rules cited in the left hand column, we have in the right hand column a structural string in which that branching rule has been obeyed. It must be noted that a branching rule operates only on one item in a string and changes it to something else. For example the first branching rule below operates on the item S, with which we begin, changing it into NP+PRED PHR. This change is noted as the first string in the Derivation column :

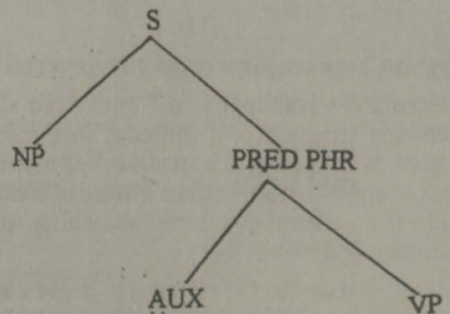
Branching rules	Derivation
1. S--> NP+PRED PHR	NP + PRED PHR
2. PRED PHR—AUX+VP	NP+ AUX + VP
3. VP—BE+NP	NP+ AUX + BE + NP
4. NP—DET+N	DET+ N+AUX + BE + DET+ N

Now we have generated the structure belonging to a sentence of the Kernel pattern 1. The derivation can be shown in the form of a

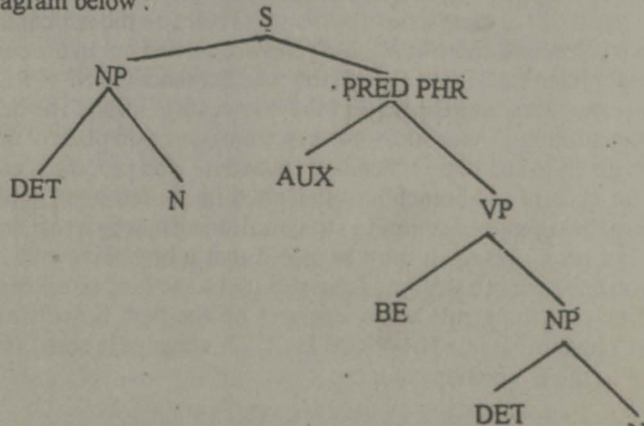
branching tree diagram where we start with the 1st rule S--> NP+PRED PHR, shown in the diagram below :



In diagram below the figure is extended to include the second rule, PRED PHR→AUX+VP as shown below :



With the 3rd and 4th rules also applied, the diagram is further extended as in diagram below :



We have indicated in the diagram above how the structure belonging to a sentence like "Her brother will be the winner" has been derived. Following the same method we could write down sets or rules to generate the sentences of all Kernel patterns. But instead of doing this and repeating some rules in each set, it has been considered better to have one set of rules which would include all the rules necessary to

generate any of the underlying stuctures of the Kernel-patterns. With the help of the following set of rules we could generate the different types of Kernel patterns.

1. S→NP+PRED PHR.

2. PRED PHR→(PVB) AUX+VP (PLACE AV) (TIME AV)

```
                |                                          |
                |     Be+PREDICATE                         |
3.   VP  (      |   (NP) (PREP PHR) (MANNER AV)            |
                |  (   V PREDICATE                         )
                |  |   S                                   |
                       | ADJECTIVE |
4.   PREDICATE →(                  )
                       | (Like) NP |
```

5. NP→(DET N (S)

```
6.   ADJECTIVE→(INTENSIFIER) ADJ
                     | DIRECTION  |
                     | DURATION   |
7.   PRED PHR →   ( PLACE         )
                     | FREQUENCY  |
8.   AUX→TENSE (MODAL) ASPECT)
                  | PRESENT       |
9.   TENSE→   (   PAST            )
                  |               |
```

Now in setting out the above rules certain conventions have been made use of. The 1st of these relates to rule No. 9. Here we have given :

PRED PHR→(PVB) AUX+VP (PLACE AV) TIME AV)

Here parentheses around some items indicate that these are optional. No plus signs are used before and after a parenthesis because it is assumed that when a parenthesis occurs it is as if there is plus sign, or, a concatenation is implied.

In rule 3 we have made use of braces because it is conventional to use them where a rule allows us to select from two or more alternative items.

| BE+PREDICATE |
VP→ (((NP) (PREP PAR) MANNER AV))
| V | PREDICATE |
| | S |

The outer pair of braces here indicates that VP may be replaced by the line Be+PREDICATE or the

|.................. |
V (..................) Here in the second pair of braces
|.................. |

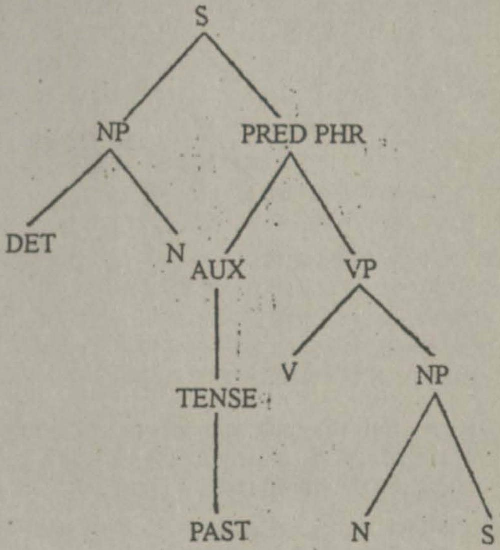
we have the items which may follow V or the verbal. The 1st line within the second pair of braces shows the possibility of further choices regarding what of follows the verbal. We can choose anyone of the items given in parentheses or some or all of them. But when items are given within braces we have only an either/or choice. For example V in rule 3 can be followed by what is given in line 1. 2, or 3 within the second pair of braces and not by more than one of these. The item PREP PHR may indicate one prepositional phrase or several one in a string.

The symbol S used in rule 3 requires some special explanation. The S symbol is used in the derivation of sentences consisting of more than one Kernel pattern. In the derivation of such generalised bases, the branching rules may be considered as being applied in cycles. In first cycle of such a derivation by the application of branching rules, we may derive the following structural string :

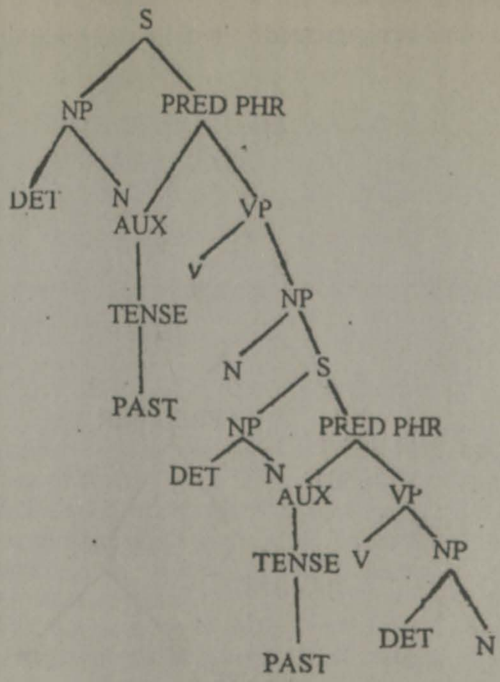
Rules	Derivation
1. S→NP+PRED PHR	NP+PRED PHR
2. PRED PHR→AUX+VP	NP+AUX+VP
3. VP→V+NP	NP+AUX+V+NP
5. NP→(DFT) N (S)	DFT+N+AUX V+N+S
8. AUX→TENSE	DET+N+TENSE+V+N+S
9. TENSE→PAST	DET+N+PAST+V+N+S

The terminal string here represents the structural base of a sentence like The boy said+S, provided we think of the DET being replaced by 'the', the first N by 'boy' the second N by 'it' which is later deleted and past +V by said.

This could be represented by the following branching tree diagram:



The second cycle of applying the rules, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 9 results developing a string DET+N+PAST+V+DET+N, which can be converted into a sentence like His college won the trophy. If we now draw a branching diagram for the sentence. The boy said his college won the trophy, the above diagram will be extended, as shown below, to include the new clause



Thus we see how the application of branching rules enables us to drive not only the structures underlying the various Kernel patterns but also those underlying the transformations based on them.

Q. 19 Write short notes on Adjuncts. Full and empty words, Postmodification and premodification in nominal groups, Allomorphs, intensifiers, concord, modal auxiliaries, the use of the genitive, the structure of the Verb Phrase, Constituent Negation and Paradigms.

Ans. The term adjunct may be defined as an amplification of the subject, predicate or object of sentence. There are three kinds of adjuncts, the attributive adjuncts, the predicative adjuncts and the adverb adjuncts. The first of these, *attributive adjuncts,* qualify nouns. In the following expressions

Ten boys
Her child
No hope
Any good
Next month
Country manners

The first word in each is an attributive adjunct. An attributive adjunct is generally used to denote a quality or condition of the person or the thing which is indicated by the noun it qualifies, as in *long* fingers, *old* man, *great* injustice. Here the noun and the adjunct may also occur in the subject-predicate relationship as in the examples,

Her eyes were *bright.*
The man was *old.*
The injustice was *great.*

Predicative adjuncts qualify nouns and pronouns without being subordinated to them. The term is generally restricted to nouns and adjectives accompanying a direct object to which they are related much in the same way as the nominal part of a predicate to its subject. Examples of such adjuncts are seen in the sentences :—

Have you made it *right.*
The fever prove him *almost crazy.*
I consider her a *pretty girl.*

Adverbial adjuncts qualify verbs, adjectives or adverbs. The girls sang *beautifully.* He was *almost* dead, She went there *often*, give examples of adverbial adjuncts. An adverbial adjunct may consist of a single word which is an adverb or it may consist of a preposition+a noun or pronoun. In the latter case it is called a preposition adjunct. Example : She lives near the church.

Free adjuncts are semi-independent words, usually occurring at the beginnings of sentences and separated from the rest of the sentences by a clear break. The construction with free adjuncts occurs more often in written English than in spoken English. Many of the free adjuncts may contain a non-finite verb, but some of them do not contain any verbal form. Example :

Generally speaking, she does not trust men.
Orphaned in childhood, he was brought up by an aunt.
Always a good singer, she could easily captivate the audience on this occasion.

A free adjunct may be used with or without a conjunction. Example Brought up in luxury, he had never known the pangs of hunger. (without conjunction).

Though a very good player, he could not do his best that day (with conjunction).

The relation of a free adjunct to the rest of the sentence is that it expresses or describes the circumstances attending the activity described by the main part of the sentence.

Full and empty words : English words can be divided into two main classes—the full ones and the empty ones, or the lexical words and the grammatical words. The basic distinction between these is very

important to learn, though not always so easy to apply. The distinction between the two classes of words can be understood by comparing a statement in English with the same statement in a highly inflected language like a Latin where there are few grammatical words, their function being mostly performed by inflexional endings. The grammatical words which play a very important part in English grammar which has virtually done away with inflexional endings, are supposed to have less meaning than the lexical words. Hence grammatical words have been called by some grammarians "empty words" while lexical words are called "full words", having more meaning. This is a rather misleading way of expressing the distinction between the two classes of words, since grammatical words, in their own way, carry a lot of meaning as can be seen by comparing the two statements "woman is unreliable" and "The woman is unreliable". The presence of the grammatical word "the" accounts for the sharp difference in meaning between the two sentences and it can by no means be called 'empty' as far as meaning is concerned. A better name for grammatical words is 'function words' (as opposed to "form words" or lexical words) because they are vital signals telling us about the kind of connection between lexical words in a sentence. Instead of having no meaning, function words may be said to have grammatical meaning or structural meaning. In an uninflected language like Modern English it is impossible to bring out the relations between the lexical words in a sentence without the help of grammatical words like the preposition, the articles, the conjunctions etc.

One important difference between lexical words and grammatical words is that unlike the lexical words, the grammatical or function words represent a relatively small and permanent set of words. In the history of the language many lexical words have been added to the vocabulary from various sources and many other have been discarded. But the grammatical words do not come and go with changing fashions. While the "full words" represent an open set, with more and more new ones coming in, the "empty words" represent a small closed set, with their ranks neither swelling nor diminishing with the passing of time. Randolph Quirk compares the vocabulary and grammar of English to the goods and equipment in a store. The words are like the eye-catching goods on display, which come and go. The grammar operating through "empty" words represents the permanent equipment, like the price-tickets, stands, coat-hangers, measuring-tapes etc. which are all necessary in handling the goods for sale. The stock which catches our attention, changes from time to time, some things being more in demand today and some others taking their place tomorrow. But the equipment used in handling the stock remains the same. So it is with the full and empty words of the English vocabulary.

Postmodification and premodification in nominal groups : In studying the grammatical structure of English, we find that the apparently

simple order of words in a sentence consists of layer upon layer of structure, each of which has its internal structure, ignored while it is treated as a unit entering into the next layer of structural relationship. In English sentences we see words brought together to form groups which can operate as units in the structure of the sentence while each of these units has its own internal structure. For instance, in a sentence, like "The Kerala Handicrafts Exhibition will be held in Cochin". "The Kerala Handicrafts Exhibition constitutes a nominal group which functions as the subject of the sentence. Here we notice that the linear order of presentation leads up to the head (Exhibition) as the final element of the group. This characteristic which is called premodification is a feature of one kind of nominal group. If the same sentence were to be re-written as "The Exhibition of Kerala Handicrafts will be held in Cochin", we should have an example of postmodification in "The Exhibition of Kerala Handicrafts". Here the linear order of presention presents the head of nominal group (Exhibition) as the initial element and not the final one in the nominal group. It is possible to have mixtures of the two types of modification in one and the same nominal group, as in "the highest and most glorious service in the struggle for freedom." Here 'service' which is the head words forms the final element in the premodification group, "the highest and most glorious service", while it forms the initial element in the group with postmodification, "service in the struggle for freedom"

It is possible to have a nominal group with premodification where the premodification is itself a substructure comprising a head with post modification, as in "The Bishop of Durham's *mitre* of beautiful workmanship". The admissibility of this kind of structure provides the basis for the ambiguity iin the puzzle. "The son of Pharaoh's daughter is the daughter of Pharaoh's son". According to the difference in the structure and substructure we assign to the first half of the sentence, the second half will have the structure and substructure :

the daughter[of (Pharaoh's son]

Or

the [(daughter of Pharaoh) 's son]

The ambiguity here arises from treating the genitive ending as if it applies, not only to the single word Pharaoh, but also to the word group "daughter of Pharaoh". In other words, the group genitive applied to the whole substructure of "daughter of Pharaoh" accounts for the ambiguity in the puzzle.

Allomorphs:—One of the very important concepts in modern language theory is that of the morpheme. The simplest definition of a morpheme is that it is the smallest meaningful linguistic unit. The word book-seller has three morphemes. book. sell and -er where the -er has meaning amounting to "one who does the action named in the preceding

syllables".From the example,we should not be misled into thinking that a morpheme is identical with a syllable,because there may be words of one syllable like cats,dogs,nuts etc. which consist of two morphemes(kaet+s, dog+z, nut+s)while many longer words of five or six syllables may contain only one morpheme or meaningful sequence of sounds which cannot be further divided.

In the word cats, the first morpheme(kaet) carries the dictionary meaning of the word while the other,(s),carries structural meaning of the idea of plurality.This/s/ sound in cats is seen to occur,with its meaning of plurality, as the last morpheme in most English nouns.Some nouns have a slightly different form of this morpheme on the end to express the idea of plurality.The spelling for this may be s, or es and the pronunciation/ s/z/ /əz/or/iz/.In other words,we may say that there are two spellings, s and -es and three pronunciations/s/./,/ and /əz/ or /iz/ for the plural morpheme in English,which may be presented as /ES/.The technical way of expressing this idea is that /s/,/z/ and /ez/ are allomorphs of the same morpheme.That is to say, they are alternative members of the plural morpheme in English.

The concept of allomorphs and morphemes is one of the most basic in descriptive linguistics.This principle involved is largely responsible for the high development of linguistic theory,description and technique.Three allomorphs of the plural morpheme,/s/,/z/ and /iz/ are conditioned since each occurs when certain clearly defined conditions occur.In these instances the conditioning factor is the phonetic nature of the preceding phonemes, (the last phoneme is the singular in each case).Hence they are phonologically conditioned and are in complimentary distribution.If we understand the facts of distribution we can rightly predict which of the three will occur in any given context where one of the three could occur.This automatic selection is part of the structure of English though it may seem unnatural to a foreigner that there should be /s/ in kaets and/z/ in baegz.

The selection of allomorphs may also be morphologically conditioned. In this case the selection is determined by the specific morpheme forming the context rather than by any phonologic feature. In oxen, the plural of ox, the morpheme /an/ is an allomorph which is used with very few words in the language. There is nothing phonologic about the selection of /ən/ is an allomorph which is used with very few words in the language. There is nothing phonologic about the selection of /ən/ as the plural morpheme of ox. The words, boxes, axes, (boksiz, aeksiz) are phonologically similar but make use of /iz/ to form their plurals. The peculiarity rests in the morpheme ox as a morpheme and therefore the selection of the allomorph /ən/ is said to be morphologically conditioned.

Intensifiers- Modern English grammar is different from traditional grammar not only in its concepts and methods of procedure in the analysis

of grammatical features, but also in many of the terms employed to describe the kind of things we have to deal with in studying the structure of the language. For instance we find that the term norminal word is used for the traditional term subject in the analysis of the structure of sentence. Though it is often rather confusing for people brought up in the old tradition to come upon these new grammatical terms many of them have great advantages over the names by which they were known in old grammar books. An example of these modern grammatical terms is found in words intensifiers, familiarly used in modern books on English grammar, though it was quite unknown to students of traditional grammar, studying in schools and colleges thirty or forty years ago. The word is used by modern grammarians to signify what older grammarians would have called adverbs in such expressions as very tired, *rather* angry, *quite* aghast, *particularly* happy, *extremely* sorry, *fairly* convincing, *exceedingly* hot. Intensifiers are very often used in combination with adjectives as in the above examples to form what are known as adjectival constructs. In a sentence of Kernel pattern 2, like.

The boys certainly should be very pleased. The expression very pleased is an instance of an adjectival construct and very is an example of an intensifier which modifies the meaning of pleased. The use of this new term enables us to distinguish this type of adverbs from other classes including adverbs of time, place, manner etc.

Concord is the term used for formal agreement in person, number, gender or tense (a combination of more than one of these) between two or more parts of sentence. It implies that when two forms are in formal agreement or show concord, the use of one necessitates the use of the other. There are two types of concord, bilateral concord and unilateral concord. If we call the forms showing concord P and Q. P can only be combined with Q and Q only be combined with P, in bilateral concord. As an example of this we may take "am" the present tense of the verb 'to be', which can combine only with the first person singular pronoun 'I', 'I' can not be combined with the other form of the present tense singular of the verb, namely 'is'. In other words it is wrong to say 'I is right" or "He am right", because there is bilateral concord between 'I' and 'am'.

On the other hand, if P can only be combined with Q, while Q may be combined with R, S, or T, we have an instance of unilateral concord. For example "we are going" is right but "we is (am) going" is not right because there is formal agreement between we and are not between "we" and other forms of the verb like is or am. At the same time 'are' is in formal agreement, not only with 'we' but also with you or they, so that it is right to say "you are going', "they are going." Other examples of unilateral concord are seen in the forms, I go , you go, they go.

Concord of person occurs between:—(i) a subject and its finite

it. It usually occurs in combination with concord of number, .(i) There is bilateral concord of person between a subject in the third person singular and the present tense of a verb in-s or-es.

Eg: He goes, She goes.
He sings, She sings.

There is also bilateral concord in the Ist and 3rd person singular of the verb 'to be' as in I am, he is, she is, John is, as well as in the 3rd person singular of have, as in it has, she has,, he has, Sita has.

Unilateral concord of person is seen between a subject in the Ist or 2nd person singular in one of the three persons of the plural and the stem of a verb which takes—s or—es in the third person singular of the present tense. Eg: I go, you go, we go, they go.

There is similar agreement in the second person singular and the three persons of the plural of the verb 'to be' as well in its preterite as in

	I was)
You are (2nd p. sg and)	He was) preterite singular
	She was)
We are (Ist p. pl.)	and We were)
They are(3rd p. pl)	You were) preterite plural
	They were)

There is the same unilateral concord of person in the 1st and 2nd person singular and in all the persons of the plural of the present tense of the verb 'to have' as in

I have
you have
we have
they have
my friends have etc.

(ii)The concord of person between a noun or pronoun and the pronoun(pronouns)referring to it is always bilateral:

I could have cursed *myself.*
Molly and *her* sister left.
John and *his* brother came.
Birds were flying to *their* nests.

Concord of number occurs:—between a subject and its finite verb, (2) between a noun or pronoun or pronouns referring to it. Here it occurs in combination with concord of person.It is bilateral or unilateral in the same cases as the concord of person,with the only exception that with *was*. It is always bilateral (3) Concord of number also occurs between a noun and its attribute adjuncts. (4) between a subject and the nominal part of the predicate. (5) between noun or pronoun denoting persons or animals and another noun referring to something belonging to them.

In sentences which have a pronoun subject and a nominal predicate,concord of number in English is not the same as in other Germanic language.In an emphatic sentence like"It is they who are responsible for the loss",the verb 'to be'agree in number with the pronoun subject 'it'.The same is the case with identifying sentence as in,

Hearing footsteps, I looked up, It *was* my sister and her friend.

But in descriptive sentences, however, the subject- pronoun and the verb agree in number with the nominal predicate as in

They are very good *boys.*
Are these your *books* ?

Though concord of number implies that a plural subject requires a plural verbal predicate and a singular subject a singular one, this is not always strictly observed as in the following cases:—

(1) Some noun in - s are construed sometimes as plural and some time as singular ones. Eg.

She gave (*an*) *alms* to the beggar.
The *bellows needs* (*need*) mending.
All *means have* been exhausted.
Every *means has* been resorted to.
The *headquarters* of the army were attacked
Sivaji retreated to *a remote headquarters* in the mountains.

(2) Some other noun though ending in -s always treates as singular, Eg. Mathematics, economics, phonetics, ethics, mechanics, measles, shambles, gallows and names of games like billiards, dominoes and draughts,

(3) " The united states" takes a singular verb while the Netherland may be followed by a singular or plural one.

(4) Also a singular verb is used after titles of books or other name in the plural as in.

"The *confessions* of an English opium - eater *is* very interesting.
Woodlands is a vegetarian hotel.

(5) A plural noun denoting time, distance or a measure takes a singular verb alter it.

Ten years is a long time, to wait.
Three miles is a long distance to walk.
Twice thirty is sixty.

(6) Singular nouns denoting a number of persons take a plural verb when the persons are thought of individually and a singular verb when the whole group is thought of collectively.

His Family was an aristocratic one.
His family was divides on this issue.

(7) Collectively nouns like cattle, clergy, people, folk, police, how ever nearly always take a plural verb. Unchanged plurals like sheep, deer, salmon, trout ect, are also treated like plurals.

(8) Either and neither though strictly singular, often take a plural verb, especially when accompanied by a plural adjunct

Neither of them know (s) of this.
Have (has) either of them been present ?

Though concord of number is between a noun or pronoun and the pronoun (s) referring to it, the indefinite pronouns everybody, everyone, nobody, no one, anyone as well as a person, while taking a verbal predicate in the singular may be referred to by a personal, reflexive of possesive pronoun in the plural.

Everybody was working as hard as they could.
No one had taken more than their share.
Everyone of them had given themselves a holiday.
Anybody who was good at their work was selected.
One does not pay a person liberally and allow them to take French leave whenever they wish to.

Concord of number between the subject and the nominal part of the predicates is seen in English when the latter denotes a profession or religion.

Both her sisters are teachers.
Many of her friends are Buddhists.

There is concord of number between a noun or pronoun — denoting persons or animals and another noun denoting something belonging to them.

The teacher raised his voice.
All animals take care of their young ones.
We soon left for out homes.

Concord of gender occurs between a noun or pronoun and one of the pronouns of the third peron singular.

Concord of tense usually occurs in english between the finite verb in the main clause and that in the object clause of a sentence reporting a statement or question.

He says he understands the difficulty.
He said he understood the difficulty.

But there is no concord of tense when the objectivity of the statement is to be emphasized.

Did not you know that my daughter is unhappy?

Modal Auxiliaries :— An auxiliary has been defined as a verb which is used to form the tenses, moods and voices of their verbs. From

this is evident that modal auxiliaries are those used with purely modal function. Will, shall, would, should, can, could, may, might, must are modal auxiliaries. As modal auxiliaries they express not distinctions of time, but purpose, desirability, possibility, or contingency. They also express the contrast between reality and desirability or mere supposition.

Will and would may be used to express a habit, or what was characteristic under certain circumstances, or to express a natural propensity, or to give special emphasis :

He will wait there for hours, expecting his love to return.
Now and then a beggar would pass by.
Boys will be boys.
When pressed to answer, he would speak in monosyllables.
He will have his revenge.
You would get in my way.

Would and should are used modally to make a polite request or modest statement or to ask a polite question as in

I should (would) like to be present.
It would seem that he meant well.
Would you kindly do this for me?

In formal and slightly archaic style, shall is used modally, that is, to express purpose, desirabilityb or contingency in subordinate clauses:

It has been decided that the passing of bill shall not be opposed. (formal)
You can do whatever shall seem right to you.)
Heaven help as when that day shall come.) archaic

The modal auxiliary should is also used after "if" in clauses lenoting conditions which are not likely to be fulfilled :

If I were you, I should kill that fellow.

"Would" and "Would have" are used modally after "to wish" when there are two different subjects and also when the subordinate clause implies some degree of volition :

I wish people would not be so selfish.
They would have done anything to make amends.

The auxiliary 'can' which usually expresses power, ability, capacity or possibility, is also used to express what a person or thing is occasionally capable of, as when we say "children can be very trying."

Could as a modal auxiliary may be used in sentences with a conditional adjunct (expressed or implied) to express the sense of "feel inclined to" and to make polite requests :

I could come now, (if you want.)
I could dance for joy.
Could you lend me your book ?

With reference to the past, we should use "could have" modally in the sentences given above.

Might is used as a modal auxiliary in the present, and it differs from 'may' in such cases in implying greater reserve on the part of the speaker :

I might call on you when I come to Trivandrum.
Might I trouble you for a minute ?
We might offer him the party leadership.

From the examples already cited, it is seen that modal auxiliaries, particularly the modal preterites, are used, not to express a contrast between past and preset time, but open between reality and desirability or mere supposition,.Mostly they are found to retain something of their character of auxiliaries of predication, as in the following :—

If you should meet him, give him this letter.
Should he have any difficulties, tell him to contact me at once.

Would you pass the sugar?
I would ask you to give me another chance.

The use of the genitive —When we study the use of the genitive in Modern English we find that the genitive suffixes are used far less freely than the plural suffixes, though like the latter, they too are remnants of the inflexional endings of nouns, which characterised Old English. The genitive suffix are also seen to be less often used in spoken English than in written English.

In the linguistic consciousness of users of English the genitive is closely associated with certain uses of the adnominal of– adjunct. That is to say, 'her sister's child' is felt to be nearly equivalent to 'the child of her sister' and "the book's title" could be a possible alternative for "the title of the book." At the same time we do not feel that it is quite right to replace the expression the bone of his arm" by "his arm's bone". This leads up to the fact that though there are many contexts in English where we could express the genitive sense by using the suffix or the of-adjunct at will, there are many others where one of the other alone can be used. Even in those cases where both constructions are admissible there are slight differences in meaning between the use of the genitive suffix an the of-adjunct.

With proper names, use of the genitive suffix is the rule, but it alternates with that of the of-adjunct, with varying ratios of frequency. Often the of-adjunct is used chiefly for the sake of balance, as in :

Edward's reign —The reign of Edward the second.
Dickens' novels—The novels of Charles Dickens.

The expressions with the of-adjunct, like "The novels of Charles Dickens" draw more attention to the proper name than the expressions with the genitive suffix like "Dickens's novels. "But if the headword requires an indefinite article the of-adjunct is the only way of expressing the sense of the genitive :

She was a great admirer of Jane Austen.
Also it is right to say, they were great admirers of Jane Austen.

Names of relations which occur without a preceding possessive pronoun prefer the genitive construction to the one using the of-adjunct, except for the sake of special emphasis. With classifying genitives, nouns denoting time (whether singular or plural), local–genitives and post-genitives (Whether singular or plural) subjective genitive before a gerund, and in a number of set phrases, the genitive is the rule of the exclusion of an adjunct. The following may be taken as examples :

A doctor's degree Widow's weeds	Classifying genitive
Three minutes' interval Five years' time	Genitive denoting time
A friend of Mary's That picture of Ravi Varma's	Post-genitive
St. Paul's Harrod's the butcher's	Local-genitive
That is 'Sita's doing	Subjective genitive
At arm's length a needle's eye The lion's share at one's fingers' ends	Set phrase

On the other hand, the of-adjunct is the rule, to the practical exclusion of the genitive, with names of things with the exception of nouns denoting time or distance and she genitives in set phrases as in :

A moment's rest
A yard's distance
A pin's head
death's door
heart's content.

The of-adjunct is the rule in spoken English with a noun in a plural sibilant suffix, with the exception of classifying, local and post-genitives and such nouns as parents. But it must be noted that there are many of-adjuncts which have nothing to do with the genitive at all. Among them are a glass of water, her scamp of a husband, a man of property, a house of cards etc.

The genitive construction is seen alternating with the of ad junct, with varying rations of frequency, with names of persons in the singular (apart from classifying genitives), with names of animals in the singular, in written English, with plural names of persons and animals, with some names of things, measures, and values and in the objective relations. These constructions are illustrated in the following examples :

the King's soldiers	—the soldiers of the King.
the author's name	—the name of the author.
the elephant's trunk	—the trunk of the elephant.
England's greatness	—the greatness of England.
Hundred Yards' distance	—Distance of hundred yards.
Five minutes' interval	—Interval of five minutes.
Thirty shillings'value	—Value of thirty shillings.
Becket's murderers	—The murderers of Becket.

It is seen from the use of the genitive in Modern English that the of-adjunct serves a very good purpose, not only as an additional mode of expressing the notion of the genitive, but also by enabling users of English to make fine distinctions in meaning which were not possible in Old English.

The Structure of Verb Phrase

In generative grammar a set of branching rules have been worked out to enable us to generate the structure of each of the kernal patterns in English. By looking at these rules it is easy to see that the great variety in the structure of the Kernel is mainly dependent on the various choices we have in the structure of the verb phrase. According to the branching rule No. 3

```
          |                                |    |
          |       | BE+Predicate           |    |
          |       ( (NP) (PREP PHR) MANNER AV (  )
VP        (   V   | PREDICATE              |    |
          |       | S                      |    |
```

In plain language this means that a verb phrase may first of all consist of BE+PREDICATE. Examples of such sentences are,

I am happy.
She is tired.
My son will be the leader.

Within the outer pair of brackets in the above equation we find :

	|	(NP) (PREP PHR) (MANNER AV)	|
V	(	PREDICATE	)
	|	S	|

This means that a verb phrase may consist of a verbal followed by the item (items) given in any one of the lines enclosed within the braces. Thus a verb phrase may consist of a verbal followed by all of the three items or any one or two of them or none of the items given in the first line within the braces because each items is given within a parenthesis. It means a verb phrase may consist of a verbal alone, or of a verbal followed by a noun phrase,a prepositional phrase, and a manner adverb. Each of the above items, being enclosed in parenthesis, is optional. So we can have verb phrases containing all of them or one of them or any one or two of them

I work	(Verbal alone)
I told a story	(V+NP)
I told a story to my son	(V+NP+PREP PHR)
I communicated the news	(V+NP+PREP PHR+MANNER
to my son gently	(MANNER AV)

The second line within the braces shows that a varb phrase may consist of a verbal followed by a predicate as in :

She seemed happy.
The girl became sad.
The boys felt tired.

The third line with the braces shows that a verbal may be followed by 'S' which stands for an embedded relative clause as in :

The boy said his college had won the trophy.

In the above sentence "His college had won the trophy' stands for 'S' which may follow the verb "said" as indicate in the equation showing the structure of the verb phrase.

From what has been already pointed out it is clear that the structure of the verb phrase may differ greatly from one sentence to another and it is the main basis on which the basic Kernel patterns of english are distinguished from one another.

Constituent Negation :— While carrying out the negative transformation in the basic sentence patterns of english, we may notice, that it is possible to apply negation to single words or phrases so that the whole sentence is not negated. This way of limiting the negation to some constituent instead of extending it over the whole sentence is called

constituent negation. Constituent negation is very commonly effected by using prefixes like undis-, in-, or suffixes -less to the word which is to be negated. A negated word in the base sentence may be indicated by attaching the symbol NEG to it :

Several NEG—healthy boys were admitted to the class.
—Several unhealthy boys were admitted to the class.
It is NEG—becoming of girls to shout-it is unbecoming of girls to shout.

Sometimes the meaning of a sentence containing a negated constituent may seem to be very much like another containing sentence negation, but their structures, as well as the tag–questions which can follow them are different. for example, we have :

It is unnecessary to shout, isn't it ?
It is n't necessary to shout, is it ?

It is seen that in certain sentences constituent negation is achieved by placing 'not' before the constituent to be negated :

This will happen in the not-very distant future.
Last, but not least, there is the acceptability of the usage.

Paradigms. A paradigm implies a list of the possible forms which a word like a noun, pronoun, verb or adjective can assume to express different inflectional forms. A noun like boy, for instance, can have an /z/ ending added to it to express the notion of plurality or the genitive case so that we have the forms ;

Boy
Boys Z1
Boy's
Boys' Z2

A pronoun like 'I' can have the forms 1
me
my
mine

A verb like ride has the forms ride
rides -Z3
riding-iɔ
rode-D1
ridden-D2

An adjective like fine has the forms fine
finer - r
finest-ist.

These different forms of the noun, the pronoun, the verb and the adjective are called paradigms. We may abstract from each these paradigms the noun paradigm, the verb paradigm, etc.) a set of morphemes by the addition of which the inflectional forms are derived.

Z1, Z2, Z3, Z1, Z2, iɔ,/ r/ist/ are all inflectional suffixes used in these paradigmatic classes.

Of these Z1, Z2 are the suffixes which are used in the paradigm of the nouns where we have only two inflected forms, the plural and the possessive. Z1, the plural morpheme, has a large variety of allomorphs. They are /S/Z/ and IZ/. The occurence of these allomorphs is phonologically conditioned. Z occurs after stems ending in voiced consonants, vowels, and diphthongs, /S/ occurs after stems ending in voiceless consonants, /IZ/ occurs after stems ending in ʃ,tʃ, dʒ, s and z.

/Z/ plus a change in the final consonant of the singular stem, occurs in nouns like knife, path etc.

Knife-knives. (naif—→naivz)

Path-paths (pa-θ—←pa:ð z)

The plural morpheme is also realised in /n/ with or without additional changes in 4 words-oxen, brethren and Kine.

In a few nouns the plural is formed by replacives. Example :

Man	men
Woman	women
Goose	geese

In some others the singular and plural are alike in form

Sheep	Sheep
Deer	Deer

Loan words often retain their origianl plural forms

radius	radii
index	indices

Of all the plural forms listed above, the one with Z1 is the commonest. Most new nouns find their way into this class.

The morpheme Z2 shows interesting relationship to Z1 in form. It has four allomorhs /S/, /Z/ /Z/ and Z. The first three are phonologically conditioned and follow the same distribution is used when the stems end in /Z/ or /S/ :

Keats' poems, St. James' church etc.

In the *verb paradigm* we find the morpheme Z3 being used to make the 3rd person singular present and D1,D2, to mark the past tense and past participle respectively, while /iG/ is used to mark the present continuous. Z3 has allomorphs exactly like Z1, with a few irregularities in verbs like do, have and say. D1, D2 have a large number of allomorphs which are phonologically conditioned and which, taken together,m account for the large number of past tense endings in english word.

oming to the *adjective paradigm* we find that the inflectional endings are relatively simple and regular /- r/ and its / being constant in

the vast majority of adjectives, though there are a few irregularities, as ain good, better, best; bad, worse, worst. This is the result of complete change in the form of the stem, known as suppletion.

Coming to the *pronouns*, we see that they are eight in number, each occurring in a paradigm of our forms. Though they share most of the features of the paradigmatic classes, it is not easy to analyse them into stems and affixes. The paradigms of I, You, He, Her are given below:

I me, my, mine
You you, your yours
He him his, his
Her, her, her, hers

The concept of the morpheme as different from that of the word has been helpful in analysing each of the various forms of a paradigm into the stem plus the respective bound morpheme.

Q.20 Write short notes on : (a) Synonymy; (b) Hyponymy; (c) Antonymy; (d) Polysymy; and (e) Collocation .

The vocabulary of a language contains a number of **lexical systems** the semantic structure of which can be described in terms of paradigmatic and syntagmatic sense-relation, on name-sense relationships which can be divided into five categories :-

1. Synonymy
2. Hyponymy and Incompatibility
3. Antonymy, Complementarity and Converseness
4. Polysemy
5. Homonymy

SYNONYMY

One sense with several names is synonymy, that is two items are synonymous they have the same sense. Lexical items can be regarded as synonymous if they can be interchanged without altering the meaning of an utterance:

e.g. I saw a madman.
I saw a lunatic.
I saw a maddy.
I saw a bedlamite.

According to John Lyons, term "synonymy' has two interpretations - a stricter and a looser. The looser interpretation has been illustrated by him by means of a quotation from Roget's **Tesaurus** : "Suppose we take the word "nice'. Under it (in the Index) we will see... various synonyms representing different shades of meaning of the word "nice'". The "synonyms' given for nice in the Index are **savoury, discriminative, exact, good, pleasing, fastidious** and **honourable.** All these words and expressions are "synonymous' with **nice** under the looser interpretation of the notion of synonymy.

QUALIFICATION OF SYNONYMY

It is often suggested that synonymy is a matter of degree; that any set of lexical items can be arranged on a scale of similarity and difference of sense, so that, for example a and b might be shown to be identical in sense (strictly synonymous), a and c relatively similar in sense (loosely synonymous), a and d less similar in sense, and so on' (Lyons, *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*, p.447).

"TOTAL SYNONYMY' AND "COMPLETE SYNONYMY'

Dr. Johnson once remarked, "words are seldom exactly synonymous'. Macaulay also observed : "Change the structure of the sentence; substitute one synonymy for another and the whole effect is destroyed'. To quote Ullmann : "it is almost a truism that total synonymy is an extremely rare occurrence, a luxury that language can ill- afford.' "Only those words" says Ullmann. "can be described as synonymous which can replace each other in any given context without the slightest change either in cognitive or emotive import". The two conditions for "**total** synonymy' are therefore (i) interchangeability in all contests, and (ii) identity in both cognitive and emotive import. We will discuss the validity of the distinction between "cognitive' and "emotive' below. On the basis of this distinction, Lyons restricts the term **total** synonymy to those synonyms (whether complete or not) which are interchangeable in all contexts; and used the complete synonymy for equivalence of both cognitive and emotive sense. This scheme of classification allows for four possible kinds of synonymy:

"COGNITIVE' AND "EMOTIVE' MEANING

(i) complete and total synonymy;
(ii) complete, but not total;
(iii)incomplete, but total.
(iv) incomplete, and not total.

The distinction between cognitive' and "emotive' meaning is based on mental faculties such as intellect, on the one hand, and the imagination and the emotions, on the other. It is often said that by contrast with the vocabulary of scientific and technical discourse, the words of "everyday language' are charged with emotional "associations' or "connotations', over and above their primary, purely "intellectual' meaning. As cited by Ullmann, **liberty freedom**, **hide-conceal** are cognitively synonymous. One word may be preferred to another because of its different emotive or evocative associations. But the extent to which this is of importance varies considerably from one style or situation to another. Since we are concerned with the more general principles of semantic structure, we would not discuss various factors responsible for the acceptability of particular forms rather than with their sense or reference. Rather we would prefer to restrict the term "synonymy' to "cognitive synonymy'

HYPONYMY AND INCOMPATIBILITY

1. Hyponymy

Hyponymy is frequently referred to as "inclusion' or "classification'. For example, the "meaning' of **scarlet** is said to be "included' in the "meaning ' of **red**; the "meaning' of **red** is "included, in the "meaning' of **blood**; the "meaning' of **rose** is said to be "included' in the "meaning' of **flower**; and so on. This formulation of the relationship of "inclusion' rests upon the notion of reference.

The way of examining vocabulary is to note the ways in which a language **classifies** units. In English, for, example, **dogs** and **cats** are classified as **domestic animals. Lions** and **tigers** are classified together under the general heading of **animal**. And **animals** and **human beings** both come under the heading of **animate beings.**

The vocabulary of English is classified in this way in Roger's **Thesaurus.** Each entry has under it a list of hyponyms (i,e. things classified under it).

Incompatibility

Incompatibility is generally defined on the basis of the relationship of contradictoriness between sentences. For example, the following simple, and familiar example from the colour-terms in English; If someone says **John was wearing a red hat,** this will be understood as implicitly denying **John was wearing a green (blue, white, yellow,etc.) hat.** And the substitution of any one of the terms in the set **green, blue, white, yellow,** etc. for red would also be taken a implying the denial of **John was wearing a red hat;** The colour-term therefore form a set of incompatible lexical items.

ANTONYMY, COMPLEMENTARITY AND CONVERSENESS

Oppositeness of meaning' has been one of the most important semantic relations. In many languages there are dictionaries of synonyms and antonyms. The study of opposites, is quite complex. Some writers use the term **antonym** for all types of opposite other divide " oppositeness of meaning' into three sub-categories:

(i) complementarity.
(ii) antonymy, and
(iii) converseness.

Complementarity

Complementarity is the relation of oppositeness in pairs of lexical items where the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other and the assertion of the one implies the denial of the other. Thus **James is not married** implies **James is single;** and **James is married** implies **James is not single.** In the case of those terms for which Lyons reserves the term antonymy' (e.g.**good-bad; high-low**), Only the second of these

implications holds **James is good** implies the denial **James is bad,** but **James is not good** does not imply the assertion of **James is bad.**

Antonymy

Antonymy is the relation of oppositeness in pairs of lexical items where the assertion of one implies the denial of the other. For example **big** and **small, little** and **much,few** and **many.** These are "opposites, par excellence.' They are regularly gradable, that is, bound up with the operation of comparison : e.g.

Our house is bigger than yours used to be both implies and is implied by **your house used to be smaller than ours is; Our house is bigger than yours** implied and is implied by **your house is smaller than ours;** and **our house is bigger than it used to be** implies and is implied **our house used to be smaller than it is (now).**

Converseness

"The third sense-relation which is frequently described in terms of "oppositeness' is that which holds between **buy** and **sell** or **husband** and **wife.** We will use the term **converseness** to refer to this relation. The word **buy,** is the converse of **sell,** and **sell,** is the converse of **buy.**" (John Lyons)

Since parallelisms exist between antonymy and complementarity, a number of linguists do not make such distinctions and regard all relations of oppositeness as "antonyms".

POLYSEMY

Polysemy or poly semantic is generally defined as "having several, often quite different meanings, all derived from the basic idea or concept" (Dictionary of Linguistics, 1954). The lexicographer lists hymonyms as different words, whereas polyseny is a term used in traditional semantics for the words having multiple meaning but given under one entry by the lexicographer. For example, "human head', head of department", bridgehead'. Hence polysemy means that one word can have more than one sense. The distinction between homonymy and polysemy is by and large indeterminate and arbitrary, resting upon either the lexicographer's judgment about the plausibility of the assumed "extension' of meaning or some historical evidence that the particular "extension' has in fact taken place.

The most prevalent type of polysemy is the result of ordinary contextual **shifts in application.** Adjectives are particularly prone to this kind of shift. For instance the different meaning of **red in red ink,red deer, red cabbage** and **Red Indian.**

Specialization in milieu is another common cause of polysemy, *e.g.* **partner,** in **business partner, marriage partner, partner in crime, room partner.** Partner contains the basic meaning of a type of a

relationship between two (or more) people. But a **business partner** is not what a **marriage partner** is.

Another, and very frequent type of polysemy, is that created by **metaphor,** e.g. **human body, heavenly body, body politic, body (of a liquid).** etc.

COLLOCATION

While studying the structure of the vocabulary, collocation can be defined as the association of a lexical item with other lexical items. It refers to the syntagmatic, horizontal relationship of lexical items (derived from the Latin **colloco** to be in same place with'). **Ink,** for example, collocates with (is found with) words such as **pen, paper, letter,note-book, inkpot, blue, red, green, royal, blue, etc. Red collocates with roses, blood, ink, apple, tomato,** etc. **Sea** collocates with **rough, cruel, raging blue,** etc. **Climb** collocates with **mountain, hill, tree, peak.**

Collocation (Syntagmatic)

The mountaineer climbed to the top of the mountain peak.

But care should be taken while studying idioms, cliches and compound words which pose problems, and cannot be dissected satisfactorily.

Q.21 What are the units of grammar (or grammatical units) ? What is their mutual relationship ?

Sentences, clauses, phrases, words and morphemes are the grammatical units. Traditional grammar operates with two fundamental units of grammatical description; the word and the sentence. Both of these units are given practical recognition in the conventions of different writing systems. According to Lyons, "The relation between the give units of grammatical description (in languages for which all five are established)is one of **composition.** If we call the sentence the "highest' unit and the morpheme the "lowest', we can arrange all five units on a scale of **rank** (sentence, clause, phrase, word, morpheme), saying that units of higher rank are composed of units of lower rank. Alternatively, we can say that units of higher rank can be analysed (or "decomposed") into units of lower rank' (*Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics,* p.171).

The grammar of a language can analyse the sentences of the language into their constituent units either way in the rank- upwards, beginning from the lowest to the highest rank, or downwards, beginning from the lowest to the highest.

There are different approaches to linguistic analysis. In phonemic phonology the phoneme is taken as basic, and in prosodic phonology the phonemic unit and prosody are taken as basic. Traditionally a grammar has been built on the words as the basic unit. Some other linguists argue to regard the morpheme as the basic unit. But there are some others who believe neither sentences nor words are the basic units. The basic units

are utterances. When the linguist sets out to describe the grammar of language on the basis of a recorded corpus of material, he starts with a more primitive notion that of either the word or the sentence. This more primitive notion is that of the utterance.

THE UTTERANCE

Just as "acceptability' is a more primitive notion than "grammaticality' or "significance', so "utterance' is more primitive than "word', "sentence', "morpheme', etc. in that its application does not depend upon any technical definitions. Harris defines utterance as "any stretch of talk, by one person, before and after which there is silence on the part of that person.' Harris further writes, "The utterance is, in general, not identical with the "sentence" (as the word is commonly used), since a great many utterance in English, for example, consist of single words, phrases, "incomplete sentences," etc. Many utterances are composed of parts which are linguistically equivalent to whole utterance occurring elsewhere.

C.C. Fries classifies utterance units into three kinds : (1) a single minimum free utterance; (2) a single free utterance, not minimum but expanded; (3) a sequence of two or more free utterances. To define the limits of utterance units, Fries accepts Bloomfield's assumption that language consists of speaker- hearer relationships in which both speaker and hearer respond to stimuli in the total situation. As a result of this he classified utterances according to responses evoked:

Communitive Utterances

I. Utterances regularly eliciting "oral" responses only:

A. *Greetings.* B.*Calls.* C. *Questions.*

II. Utterances regularly eliciting "action" responses, sometimes accompanied by one of a limited list of oral responses: *requests or commands.*

III. Utterances regularly eliciting convention signals of attention to continuous discourse.....

Non-Communitive Utterances

Utterances characteristic of situations such as surprise, sudden pain, prolonged pain, disgust, anger, laughter, sorrow.

What strikes one about this scheme is the attempt to describe by formal clues linguistic functions that more traditional grammars have defined in terms of semantic, logical, and formal properties of language.In this scheme Fries has found a place for the traditional term, **statements, questions** and **commands.** But for the usual rubric **exclamations** he substitutes the phrase **non-communitive utterances.** This phrase evidently is based upon Bloomfield's conception of language as "the use of sound waves to bridge the gap between two nervous systems.'

THE SENTENCE

The term "sentence' has been defined in several ways. We cite below only a few definitions :—

1. "A sentence is a word or set of words followed by a pause and revealing an intelligible purpose.

—A.H.Gardiner, *The Theory of Speech and Language*, p98.

2. "A sentence is a grammatical form which is not in construction with any other grammatical form : a constitute which is not a constituent.'

—Hockett, *A Course in Modern Linguistics*, p.199

3. A sentence is "an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form.' —Bloomfield.

4. "The sentence is the linguistic expression or symbol denoting that the combination of several ideas or groups of ideas has been effected in the mind of the speaker.'

—Hermann paul, *Prinzipiender Sprachges chichte* (1880), tr. by H.A.Strons.

So according to Bloomfield, the sentence is the largest unit of grammatical description, that is, it is the maximum unit of grammatical analysis. "Therefore the sentence is conveniently taken as the largest unit of grammatical analysis and the upper limit of structural statement at the grammatical level.

—(R.H.Robins, *General Linguistic*, p.191).

Certain consequences follow from this. A sentence is by definition, grammatically complete. It may, therefore, be preceded and followed by in each language with prepausal position; it is usually marked in writing by final punctuation, full stop, question mark, exclamation mark, or semicolon, and in speech by a characteristic intonation tune. Intonation tunes coextensive with a sentence often do, and in all cases may, close with a sentence final pattern of pitches. While in continuous discourse sentences may follow one another without pause or intervening silence, there is always potentiality of pause at sentence boundaries. Thus the sentence can be phonologically defined as a stretch of speech that may be uttered with a prepausal intonation tune. The congruence between the grammatical and phonological levels, though it is potential rather than always actual, is an additional characteristic of the status of the sentence as a structural unit' (Robins, p.191).

Traditional grammar went further than this and declared that sentences expressed a complete predication, question, or command, and that each had a specific logical form. The predicative sentence was often

equated with the proposition of logic. But as linguistics, and therefore grammar as part of linguistics, is distinct from logic, though both are in different ways concerned with language and its use, the same definitions will not produce satisfactory structures for both studies alike. For logicians logical form and content is more important; grammatical and phonological structures are important for the linguists.

Grammar thus operates between the **upper limit** of the **sentence** and the **lower limit** of the **morpheme** or minimal grammatical unit. Between these limits structures given such titles as clause, piece, phrase and word may be abstracted and formally delimited. Of these, in all languages the word appears as a particularly stable element, and serves as a basic grammatical unit in grammar in many a linguistic study. The status of the word and the morpheme as formal units of grammatical structure and grammatical analysis will be studied in the following sections.

THE WORD

The term has been defined differently. In the END, it is defined as (1) "speech, utterance, verbal expression': (2) "an element of speech.' The Bible says, "In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was with God'and the Word was God.' In most spelling systems, words are the smallest units of written discourse. For a linguist the word is a very important, fundamental unit. Not only is it the chief subject-matter of lexicology, but it is dependent on phonology for the analysis of its sound-structure, and on syntax for the delimitation of its status in more complex configurations.

"Words', says Bacon in the *Advancement of Learning*, "are the tokens current and accepted for conceits, as moneys are for values.' To Dr. Johnson. "words are the daughters of earth, and that things are the sons of heaven.' Malinowksi went so far as to say that words "are in fact only linguistic figments, the products of an advanced linguistic analysis.' Some other nonformal, extragrammatical definitions of the word define it as "possessing a single meaing' or "conveying a single idea'. But all such definitions are of little value.

Bloomfields's classic definition of the word as the "minimum free form' of a language regards the word as a stretch of speech that admits momentary minimal pause on either side. Words we have said elsewhere, are constituted out of morphemes, the minimal units of grammatical analysis. Whether a word can be divided into smaller grammatical segments, is a matter of degree. The words **girl-s, call-s, call-ing, tall-er, tall-est**, etc. can be segmented into their constituent parts no less readily than **unacceptable;** and so can the majority of English nouns, verbs and adjectives. Such words according to Lyons, are **determinate with respect to segmentation.** But there are many other English nouns, verbs and adjectives which either cannot be segmented at all or are only

partially determinate with respect to segmentation. Examples are: the irregular plurals **men, children, mice, teeth,** etc. the irregular comparatives and superlatives **better, best, worse, worst.** These words all present problems of segmentation. Robins divides words into two classes: **variable** and **invariable.** The words determinate with respect to segmentation variable words. Words appearing in only one form are invariable words , such as English **since, when, seldom.**

Nevertheless the word is the unit **par excellence** of traditional grammar. It is the basis of the distinction which is generally drawn between morphology and syntax and is the principal unit of lexicography (dictionarymaking)'. According to common formulation, **morphology** deals with the internal structure of words and syntax with the rules governing their combination in sentences. Etymologically, speaking "morphology' is simply "the study of forms and "syntax' the theory of "putting together'. In traditional grammar, it was taken for granted that the "forms' treated in grammar are the forms of words and that words are the units which are "put together', or combined in sentences. In older books on language, distinction between morphology and syntax is sometimes represented in terms of a distinction between "form' and "function' in the sentence, which is accounted for by the rules of syntax (with reference to such notions as "subject', "object', "complement', etc.) words are said to assume a different "form, and the different "forms' are handled by morphology.

But the word "word' is used in several quite different senses. There are phonological or orthographical words and the grammatical words which they represent. For example, the phonological word/kat/and the corresponding orthographic word cut represent three different grammatical words: "the present tense of **cut**', "the past tense of **cut**', and "the past participle of cut'. Phonological and orthographic words in English are generally in one-to-one correspondence with one another in the sense that they represent the same set of (one or more) grammatical words. But there are some instances of (a) one-many or (b) many-one correspondence between phonological and grammatical words, e.g. (a) /mi :t/ ; meat, meet; (b) ri:d /,/ red/ ("the present tense of **read**' and "**the past** tense of **read**'). Many similar languages also provide similar examples of one-many or many-one correspondence between phonological and orthographic words. Then the word is also used in the sense of a "lexeme', that is to say, whereas singing is but form of the word sing...singer is a different word, with its own set of forms, or "paradigm". Modern linguists have tended to neglect, or even to condemn, this more "abstract' usage, says Lyons. According to those who believe in "lexemes', the orthographic word **cut** represents three different inflexional "forms' (three different grammatical words) of the lexeme **CUT**.

One well-known definition of the word runs as follows: "A word may be defined as the union of a particular complex of sounds capable of

a particular grammatical employment'. This is a semantic definition of the word. This definition, however, makes it a necessary condition that the word should be simultaneously a semantic, a phonological and a grammatical unit. Some linguists say that this definition can be improved further by saying that words are the smallest segments of utterances which fulfill the three conditions. According to John Lyons, however, semantic considerations are irrelevant in the definition of the word, as in the definition of the other grammatical units. It would be better therefore to concentrate upon defining the word in purely **Grammatical** terms.

Hence when we try to define the word grammatical, Bloomfield's definition of the word a "minimal free form' comes first to our mind. But Bloomfield's definition too is not perfect. For it will not include **the** and **a,** for example in English, in the category or words, beacause they are not free forms. Such forms are not likely to occur as whole utterance in any normal situation of language use. In the word of Lyons, "Although' Bloomfield's definition of the word in terms of "freedom' and "bondage' has been accepted by many eminent linguists, it can hardly be regarded as satisfactory. We must not lose sight of the primary object of grammatical description : to generate sentences from which can be derived the utterances and potential utterances of the language being described. All question of classification must be subordinated to this purpose, For the present, it will be sufficient to regard words as those structural units which are composed of one or more than one morpheme.

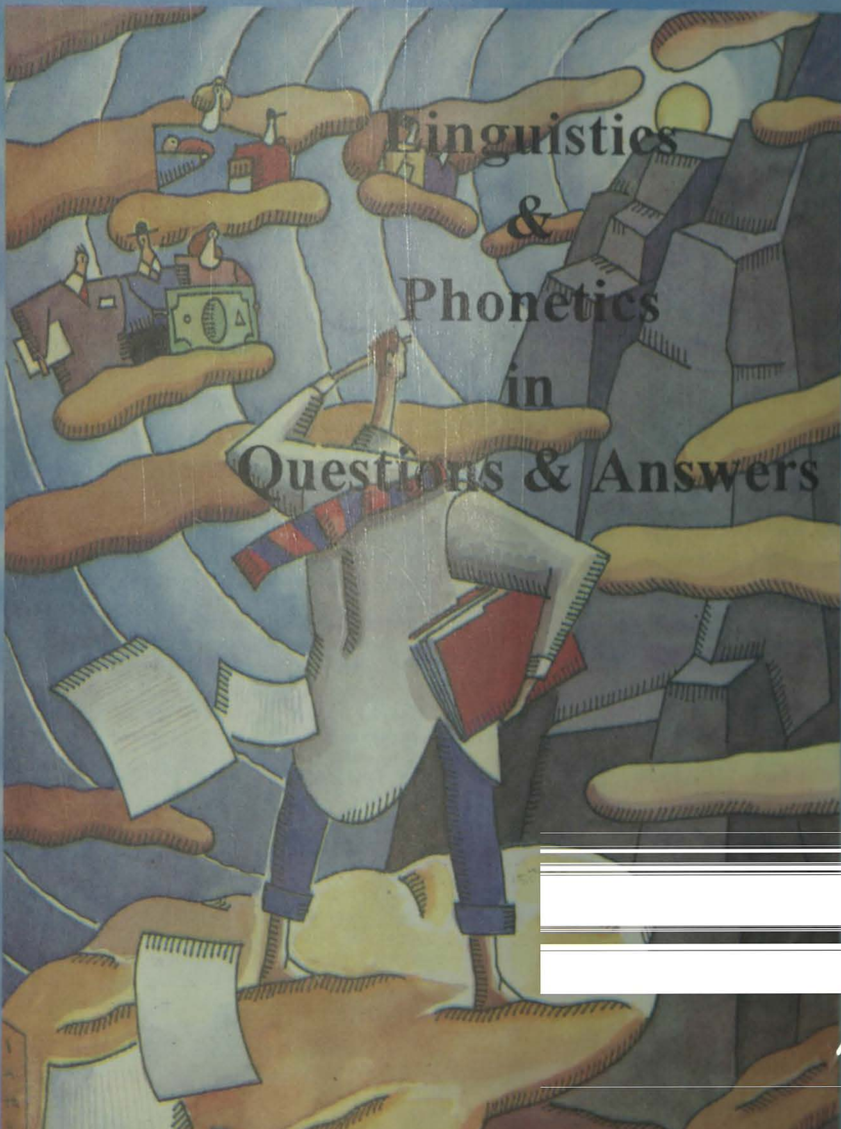
THE MORPHEME

The morpheme is the minimum grammatical unit. For example, he four constituents **un-faith,-ful,-ness** of **unfaithfulness** are morphemes. We have discussed the morpheme in detail in a separate chapter entitled "Morphology" (See Chapter 9).

THE PHRASE AND THE CLAUSE

"Any group of words which is grammatically equivalent to a single word and which does not have its own subject and predicate' is called a **phrase'** (John Lyons). On the other hand, "a group of words with its own subject and predicate, if it is included in a larger sentence' is called **clause** (John Lyons, *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics,* P.17). Theoretically, the traditional distinction between phrases and clauses was drawn on the basis of the distinction between word-like and sentence-like groups of words within sentences : for the sentence itself was traditionally defined in terms of "subject' and "predicate' by the traditional grammarians. The clause and the phrase, however, are secondary grammatical units, and therefore are not discussed in detail in this book.

THE STORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE



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